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A

GENERAL, MEDICAL, AND STATISTICAL

HISTORY

OF

THE PRESENT CONDITION

OF

PUBLIC CHARITY IN FRANCE.

GENERAL, MEDICAL, AND STATISTICAL

HISTORY

OF

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THE PRESENT CONDITION

OF

PUBLIC CHARITY IN FRANCE;

COMPRISING

A DETAILED ACCOUNT OF ALL ESTABLISHMENTS DESTINED FOR THE SICK, THE AGED, AND THE INFIRM, FOR CHILDREN AND FOR LUNATICS;

WITH

A VIEW

OF THE

EXTENT OF PAUPERISM AND MENDICITY, AND THE MEANS NOW ADOPTED FOR THEIR RELIEF AND REPRESSION.

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TO

THE RIGHT HONOURABLE

ROBERT PEEL,

SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE HOME DEPARTMENT,

THIS VOLUME

IS RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED BY

THE AUTHOR.

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ACCOUNT

OF

PUBLIC CHARITY IN FRANCE.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS UPON THE CONDITION OF HOSPITALS IN FRANCE PRIOR TO THE REVOLUTION.

SEVERAL of the Hospital Establishments of France, as well as of other countries, are of very ancient date; but the institutions in which, during an early period of history, refuge and assistance were given to the sick and distressed were by no means of the same character as hospitals of the present day.

In many of the principal churches of Christendom apartments were reserved for the reception of poor persons labouring under disease; and the dwellings of the Christian bishops, in the primitive ages of the church, had much of the appearance of hospitals. There does not, however, appear to have existed any establishment properly entitled to the name of an hospital prior to that founded in the

fourth century at Cæsarea by St Basil. This foundation was of great extent, was well administered, was endowed with landed possessions by the Emperor Valens, and provided with every thing necessary to the comfort of the poor and afflicted. The example of Basil was soon followed by St Chrysostom, who founded many similar establishments in Constantinople. The sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries saw others founded in various countries of Christendom; and at last the importation into Europe of that dreadful malady, the leprosy, which was brought by the crusaders from Asia, rendered their erection a matter of necessity more than of charity. The houses, which were then termed in France *Leproseries* and *Maladreries*, were built in great numbers; so that, at the close of the reign of Louis VIII., there appear to have existed no fewer than two thousand of them in the kingdom, and, according to Matthew Paris, at the close of the thirteenth century, no less than nineteen thousand in the different countries of Europe.

Hospital-establishments were at first intrusted solely to the care of the priesthood. The consequence soon came to be, that they were occupied by creatures of the church of Rome, who applied the revenues to their own purposes. By an enormous abuse of the trust confided in them, the administrators turned to their own profit what was originally destined for the relief of the poor, and hospitals became benefices for the private individuals who had the direction of them. Of the hospitals that exist-

ed in France many were destroyed in consequence of the commotions which took place during the second race of their kings. Others, as is proved by the chronicles of many towns, were converted into convents. Thus, the Abbaye of St Andoche, in Autun, was originally founded as an hospital by Queen Brunehaut; and, at Paris, the Hospital of St Julien-le-Pauvre, founded in the sixth century, became a chapter, and afterwards a priory.

The abuses in the administration of hospitals became at last so great as to attract the attention of the Council of Vienne, held under Pope Clement V., in 1311. The question of their reform was discussed in this Council, and the discussion ended in its being forbidden to give away any charitable institution under the name of a benefice; while it was ordered that the management of hospitals should be intrusted to laymen of good character, who, under the sanction of an oath, should act as tutors or guardians, and make up regular accounts of the manner in which the funds were administered. The good, however, intended by the *Clementine* of the Council of Vienne was in no degree accomplished as it ought to have been. In France, Germany, and elsewhere, little change for the better took place in the system of hospital-administration. Every thing yet remained in the hands of the clergy, and hospital-revenues continued to be enjoyed as prebends and benefices. The first symptom of the *Clementine of Vienne* having any influence

in Germany was to be perceived in the formula of Charles V., given at Augsburg in the year 1548. In this he orders all hospitals that had fallen into ruin to be repaired, and commands one-fourth of the revenues of churches and convents which had belonged to the poor to be restored to their original destination.

The abuse that every where prevailed could scarcely fail to attract the attention of the Council of Trent at a period when the great reformers of the age were on the watch to seize every instance of corruption connected with that church, whose foundations they were labouring to undermine. In the year 1547, accordingly, at the seventh sitting of this celebrated Council, the question was brought under consideration. The decree of Clement was revised and confirmed on this occasion, and at the last sitting of the Council, in 1563, it was finally discussed, and minute instructions were published as to the manner in which it should be carried into effect.

In France the famous *ordonnance* of Blois served afterwards to extend more widely the benefit ensured to the community by the decision of the Council of Trent. This *ordonnance* enjoined that the administrators of hospitals should be neither ecclesiastics, nobles, nor officers, but simple citizens accustomed to habits of business and calculation, and who might consequently be able to exhibit an accurate and distinct statement of their manage-

ment. The nomination of these officers was confirmed to the founders of the hospitals. They were to remain only three years in office.*

It has been already said, that hospital establishments can be traced back to an early period of French history. The greater part of them, however, were destroyed, either amidst the disorders of the country, or by the sordid peculation of individuals; and there are only two of any importance that exist at the present day. These are the Hôtel-Dieu of Lyons, founded by Childebert, and the Hôtel-Dieu of Paris, founded under Clovis II. While these two extensive establishments are thus entitled to an historical celebrity, their present utility, as the great fountain-heads of charity to the unfortunate of the two first cities of the kingdom, serves to enhance their importance.

For many centuries after the reign of the two monarchs just mentioned, the foundation of hospitals was of rare occurrence, and on this head little

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* The Ordonnance of Blois here alluded to was published at Paris by Henry III., in May, 1579. Its name is derived from having been given in consequence of complaints made by the deputies of the estates of the realm assembled at Blois. Another ordonnance, of March, 1498, was actually given at Blois, but it chiefly referred to ecclesiastical matters. It is necessary, therefore, to distinguish between these two ordonnances; the one taking its name from the date of its promulgation, the other from the place where it was promulgated.

or no interest presents itself till the age of St Vincent de Paul. His exertions succeeded in giving an impulse to charitable feelings; and of the hospitals of the capital which existed at the Revolution, no fewer than twenty owe their origin to the beneficence of that period.

Hospitals have enjoyed at all times in France very important immunities. They were exempted from the *decimes* by Francis I. They were also exempted from the *vingtièmes*, and the persons that farmed their possessions from the *taille*. They were not subjected to any tax upon sale or exchange of property, and their articles of consumpt were relieved from the *gabelle*. They possessed a right in the proceeds of public amusements,—were entitled to one-fourth part of all police confiscations and fines, and all fines for contravention of the forest-laws; also of all merchandise and other effects confiscated by sentence of any tribunal, or on account of duels. They were capable of receiving all gifts and legacies, and inherited whatever property their inmates might possess. They were afterwards enriched further at the expense of the Protestants. By an *ordonnance* of 1669, hospitals were ordered to receive Protestants as well as Catholics; and some years later the Parliament of Toulouse put them in possession of all property given to Protestants. This measure speedily extended over the country; and by the edict of 1684, which shortly preceded the revocation of that of Nantes, it was declared,

that in case the Protestant consistories should come to be suppressed, the hospitals should still be entitled to retain possession of the goods originally belonging to Protestants.

The *Maladreries* and *Leproseries*, which, as formerly mentioned, had been founded in such numbers in France, gradually became less necessary. The disease which had occasioned their foundation by degrees disappeared; they fell into ruin, and their revenues were usurped by private individuals. In order to put a stop to this usurpation, Francis I., by a declaration of 19th December, 1543, ordered an account to be made out of the number, actual state, and amount of revenue of the different *Maladreries* of the kingdom. This, however, did little good; and Henry IV., by an edict of June, 1606, gave orders to his grand almoner, vicars, and commissaries, to proceed to a reformation of abuses, and desired that all revenues no longer required for lepers should be distributed among poor gentlemen and wounded soldiers. Louis XIII., in 1612, created a chamber, composed of four *maîtres de requêtes*, and four *conseillers du grand conseil*, jointly with his grand almoner, Cardinal Perron, to see that these revenues were spent in restoring health to the sick, succouring the destitute, instructing children, and portioning orphans.

In the year 1672, the king, having a high opinion of the utility of the religious orders of St Lazare and of N. D. de Carmel, made over to them the revenues and privileges of the different *Maladre-*

ries of the realm.* This destination, however, afterwards appearing to him to be too remote from the original one, he revoked his edict, and by another, of 1693, devoted those advantages more directly to the poor. Among other instructions contained in this edict, all archbishops, bishops, intendants, and commissaries were required to examine into the state of the buildings, and ascertain if they required great repairs, and in that event to consider how far it would be advisable to unite several of them into one, so as to form a *chef-lieu*, in which the poor of the neighbouring villages might receive assistance; or whether they might be better conjoined with some hospital already in existence. In the latter case, they were to examine into the state of all hospitals and hôtel-dieus, to make a proper

* The various hospital establishments founded at different times in the Christian world gave rise to the formation of what were termed the orders of Hospitallers. There were three descriptions of Hospital orders,—religious, military, and mendicant. The first of these followed the rules of St Augustin. Amongst the second class, the Knights of Malta and of St Lazare had originally the charge of hospitals at Jerusalem, and of defending Christian travellers from the attacks of the infidels. The third class, or Mendicant Hospitallers, were originally founded in Grenada, and their creation was confirmed by a bull of the year 1572.

Besides these there were numerous inferior orders of Hospitallers, such as those of Our Lady of Carmel, the Holy Ghost of Montpellier, St James of the Sword, and many others of greater or less note. The grand-masterships of the last-mentioned order, and of the orders of Alcantara and Calatrava, were attached to the crown of Spain by Pope Adrian VI.

choice for this union. About the same time, also, Louis, having suppressed some fraternities which he deemed useless, made over their possessions to the same charitable establishments.

All these various means, however, proved insufficient to the proper maintenance of hospitals, and other arrangements were devised to increase their revenues. Thus, for example, in 1717, the Loterie of the Foundlings, and afterwards that of the Pitié, were created. As early as the 17th century attempts had been made to establish houses in Paris for the purpose of lending money upon effects deposited on pledge; and in 1643 a privilege to this effect had been given to a private individual. He, however, was unsuccessful in the attempt; and the first *Mont de Piété* founded in Paris does not bear an earlier date than 1777. It was created for the benefit of the general hospital, in consequence of the good results found to arise from establishments of a similar description, for some time existing in Italy, Flanders, Hainault, Cambresis, and Artois.*

Towards the middle of the 18th century, the pro-

* In Italy, *Monts de Piété* have long existed. That of Milan was founded as early as the year 1469, by the citizens, with the approbation of the then reigning Duke Ludovico Maria Sforza, surnamed the Moor. After various changes and embarrassments, it was again put in activity, with a capital of about 230,000 *lire* in money and other advantages, amounting to 257,700, making in all a capital of 487,700 *lire*.

It receives goods as pledges to the amount of 300 *lire* each, to be redeemed in the space of one year; one-half *centime per*

perty of hospitals and charitable institutions in general was greatly mismanaged. Their funds were ill laid out, and very trifling returns were obtained for the capital they possessed. Though in reality wealthy, many of them were for this reason forced to limit the amount of their charities, or solicit the aid of government. To obviate in some measure this evil, two edicts of great importance were passed in the 18th century. The one, dated 1749, forbade all hospitals and communities to acquire real property, (*biens fonds,*) and ordered them to vest their funds in *rentes* and government stock. The other, dated 1780, recommended the propriety of selling the property they actually possessed, and vesting it otherwise, so as to receive a higher interest. This edict, in many respects, was an admirable one, and the reasons it advanced were sound and conclusive. Among other causes of complaint, it pointed out, very properly, the injurious consequences arising from the complicated nature of hospital property; the management of which occupied more of the time and attention of the administrators than was devoted to the wants of their inmates. Though not acted on at the time, this edict became afterwards the mo-

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lira being paid to it monthly, to cover interest and the expenses of the establishment.

The pledges amount in general to about 31,000 in the year. They are received every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, and are redeemed on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays. On the first of every month there is an advertised sale of unredeemed pledges.

del of subsequent laws for the sale of hospital property, and gave rise to the arguments in favour of transferring the funds of the *Communes* to the *Caisse d'Amortissement.*

Hospitals were originally entirely subject to ecclesiastical jurisdiction; but the spirit which directed them in practice was by no means in unison with the Christian charity and benevolence professed by the administrators. Abuse followed upon abuse, till, as has already been shown, it became a matter of necessity to take the management out of the hands of the church. By the *ordonnance* of Francis I. the royal judges were authorised to make regular visits to all charitable establishments, and inquire into the state of their affairs. Henry II. intrusted his grand almoner with the supreme inspection of hospitals; and whatever talents and wisdom could do was done by the illustrious Chancellor L'Hôpital. His *ordonnances* of Moulins and Blois were in their provisions admirable, but the state of the times did not allow of their being properly carried into effect. Henry IV. likewise attempted the task of improvement, but it was Louis XIV. who finally arranged with any degree of success the manner in which the administration of hospitals was to be conducted. According to the regulations then laid down, each hospital was to possess a *bureau* of direction, composed in each district of the first officer of justice, of the king's *procureur*, the mayor, an *echevin*, and the *curé*. If the district happened to consist of several parishes, each *curé* was to take his turn for

the space of one year. In addition to these *ex officio* members, there were to be a certain number of citizens in the direction, to go out every three years. This bureau was to meet once a-fortnight, or oftener if necessary. The general council, which, besides the actual members of the direction, was to consist of all the inhabitants entitled to assist at the assemblies of the commonalty, was to meet once or twice a-year. All archbishops and bishops were entitled, if they chose, to be present and preside at both descriptions of meeting in their respective dioceses. All property belonging to hospitals was, at the period of the above regulations, put under the guardianship of the parliament.

Such were a few of the regulations laid down by Louis XIV.; but, notwithstanding the authority which proposed them, and their own excellence in many points, they were, at the period when the Revolution broke out, very little attended to. At that time no general system prevailed in the government of hospitals: some were in the hands of ecclesiastics, others of municipalities; some were administered by citizens of all descriptions, and others possessed a close administration. That of Lyons, however, according to the account given by M. Dupin, seems to have been rather on a good footing. In it the administrators were elected every two years. At the moment of election they deposited a sum of money, for which they received no interest, and which they could only withdraw by leaving the direction.

The Hospital-general of Paris was always governed by regulations peculiar to itself. The administration was composed of the Archbishop, the first President, and *Procureur-Général* of the Parliament, the first Presidents of the *Chambre des Comptes*, and of the *Cour des Aides*, of the Lieutenant of Police, and of the *Prevôt des Marchands*. The elective directors were ten in number, and were chosen for life from among the citizens. On them fell the great burden of business.

Such was the condition of hospitals at the commencement of the French Revolution. To enter into a detail of all the plans at that time proposed for their improvement would be very unnecessary. The spirit of philosophy now attempted what the government and the church had hitherto found so difficult. The beauty of many of these plans cannot be denied; but they were entirely theoretical, and, even without a trial, persons of reflection saw at once the impossibility of their ever being put in practice. The false philanthropy of the age wished to abolish hospitals altogether; liberty and industry, emulation and civilization, were to render man independent of such establishments. The days of former times were to be restored, when their existence was not required; but unfortunately the elements of society had undergone too fundamental a change to allow even the most speculative philosopher to retain such opinions long. Undoubtedly there was much need of improvement in the hospital system of France. The state of internal manage-

ment was wretched in the extreme; and while the extravagance of many of the ideas then broached creates a smile, it must be at the same time allowed, that the public was not ignorant of the vices of the actual system, and was really anxious to improve it. The condition of the Hôtel Dieu, in particular, claimed attention; in it, two, four, and even six persons were placed in the same bed. No classification of diseases was thought of, and the mortality was such as to render it an object almost of terror. Government at last perceived the necessity of a change in so wretched an order of things, and demanded from the Academy of Sciences a plan for the removal of the Hôtel Dieu to some other and more healthy situation. The commission appointed by the Academy to take this into consideration was composed of many celebrated names: Lassone, Daubenton, Tenon, Bailly, Lavoisier, Laplace, Coulomb, and Darcet, were men that gave confidence to the public, and their report was looked forward to with great anxiety. Many persons, in the meantime, published plans of their own, in opposition to what were supposed to be those entertained by the Academy; and these almost all proposed the abolition of hospitals, and the institution of *Secours à Domicile*. The opinion of the Academy was, in fine, adopted. Hospitals were to be encouraged, and it was recommended that the Hôtel Dieu should be replaced by four new hospitals. Circumstances, however, prevented the execution of this design, and the Hôtel Dieu, in the present day, stands in

the same place as it did previous to the Revolution.*

The Constituent Assembly was formed, and ordered plans to be given in on this important subject; all of which, while they agreed in the absolute necessity of a change, did little to farther or hasten it. The committee of the Convention discussed at large the interesting question, and its members published many excellent memoirs relative to it. A short account of a variety of their proposals for remodelling the system of public charity throughout the kingdom in general will be afterwards given in treating of paupers; at present, as far as regards hospitals, it is not necessary to say much of them. The idea entertained by this committee was, that to ensure the full benefit of the assistance granted, it was requisite that it should all proceed from one common centre, and be spread into the departments of the kingdom in the necessary proportions. All hospital-possessions then were to be thrown into one common mass, to which an annual sum was to be added by the legislative body. The total population of the departments, compared with the number of inhabitants, paying a contribution equal to ten days'

* When it was proposed to remove and remodel the Hôtel Dieu of Paris at this time, the miserable state of the finances of the country rendered it necessary to make a call upon the generosity of the public. In consequence, from the 21st January, 1787, to the 21st July of the same year, there was subscribed the enormous sum of 2,258,159 livres.

labour, and the rate of this daily labour in each department, were to form the basis on which the partition was to be made. Each district was to have an hospital for the sick and aged who could not be supported at their own homes; and each department was to have a *central house* for the treatment of extraordinary maladies, and particularly for madness. All other establishments of charity were to be abolished.

This short sketch will be sufficient to give an idea of the state of hospitals in France, down to the period of the Revolution. Their present condition will now form the subject of consideration; and it will be seen, from the account about to be given, that though admitting, in some points, of important improvements, they present, upon the whole, a picture honourable to humanity, and not unworthy of the nation to which they belong.

CHAPTER II.

PRESENT SYSTEM OF HOSPITAL-ADMINISTRATION.—GENERAL COUNCIL OF THE CIVIL HOSPITALS OF PARIS.—PENSIONS TO RETIRED SERVANTS.—NATURE OF HOSPITAL PROPERTY AND REVENUE.—METHOD OF MAKING UP ACCOUNTS.—COMPARISON BETWEEN THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS OF MANAGEMENT.

THE establishments of charity in Paris, and the details connected with their administration, are placed under the charge of a general council and of an administrative commission, the whole subject to the superior jurisdiction of the minister of the interior.

The general council was created by an *arreté* of government, dated the 17th of January, 1801, and the number of its members was then fixed at eleven. By an ordonnance of the king, of the 18th of February, 1818, the number was increased to fifteen, independent of the prefect of police and the prefect of the department of the Seine, who are, *ex officio*, members, and the latter of whom is president. The members of the council are named by the king; and, in case of a vacancy, a list of five candidates is presented by the prefect to the minister of the interior, by him to be laid before his

majesty for selection. At the beginning of December of each year one-fifth of the members go out of office by rotation.

The functions of the general council are numerous and important. They are charged with the whole general management of the hospitals, hospices, and public institutions of charity of the capital, and with the general expenditure and state of the revenues. They regulate every branch of the administration, calculate the relative expenses of each, and likewise, under the authority of the minister of the interior, determine the number of inmates to be admitted into the hospices, as well as the number and salaries of the persons to be employed in them, and in the various offices connected with the administration. The council have also a jurisdiction over that institution termed *Secours à Domicile*, and also over the *Bureau des Nourrices*; both of which, previous to the year 1801, were under a distinct administration from the hospitals, but were joined with them by the *arreté* of the 19th April of that year. They likewise extend their superintendence to all private committees and associations of charity, the state of which they report to the minister of the interior.

Whilst, as a council, all the members concur in the management of the different establishments of charity in the capital, each, at the same time, has one or more of those establishments under his own charge, to the affairs of which his attention is more directly turned.

The general council have a regular weekly meeting, under the presidency of the prefect of the Seine, in the Hôtel de Ville. The president has the right of calling additional extraordinary meetings should they be judged necessary. At these meetings there must be present, at least, seven members of the council, and their deliberations must be signed by the president and secretary. These deliberations, of whatever nature they may be, must be laid for approval before the minister of the interior, whose decision must be put into effect within the space of twenty-four hours.

The administrative commission, to which the executory detail of business is intrusted, was at first composed of five members. These, by an *arreté* of 1802, were increased to eight. At present the number is six, and they are nominated by the minister of the interior on the presentation of the council.

In the different parts of the country, and in the *communes*, where the mayors are nominated by the king, the prefect presents a list to the minister of the interior; but in those where the mayors are not nominated by the king, the prefects of the departments themselves name the members of the various commissions for administering the hospitals. A circular of the minister of 1818 regulates the manner in which the commissions are to be renewed, and appoints the mayors to be, *ex officio*, members and presidents of the commissions. The administrative commission of Paris differs in some

respects from those of the departments, and is not included in the ordonnance of the king, of the year 1821, by which the others are organized. The difference consists principally in this, that the committees of charity in the departments being gratuitous, are regularly renewed; while in Paris they are provided with salaries, and on that account are not liable to the renewal which takes place in the others.

Each member of the administrative commission of the hospital of Paris receives an annual sum of 1500 francs, (£60,) payable monthly, and placed to account of general expenses.

By the *arreté* of 1801, two members of this commission were to assist at the meetings of the general council. At present all the members have a consulting voice in the council, though their presence is not necessary to its deliberations.

The administrative commission superintend and are responsible for the execution of all the regulations, alterations, and improvements, adopted by the general council. They are likewise responsible for the behaviour of the inferior officers employed in the administration. To render their duties the more easy, they are divided into five sections or divisions.

The first division comprehends every thing that relates to the Hospices de la Salpétrière, de Bicêtre, des Incurables Hommes, des Incurables Femmes, des Ménages, de la Maison de Retraite, de la Rochefoucauld, the institution de Sainte Perine, la Bou-

langerie Générale, the Hôtel Dieu, la Pitié, and Beaujon.

The second division is subdivided into two sections. The first of these comprises the Pharmacie Centrale, the Bureau of Admission, the Medical Service, the Internal and External Clinics, and the Central and Gratuitous Establishment for Vaccination.*

The second section comprehends the Hospices des Enfans Trouvés, des Orphelins, la Maison d'Accouchement, the Hospitals of Saint Louis, des Veneriens, des Enfans Malades, de Necker, de Cochin, de la Charité, de Saint Antoine, the Maison de Santé, the Maison Royale de Santé, the General Direction of Nurses, and the Bureau of Vaccination, as in the former section.

The third division comprises the domains and revenues of the hospices, &c.

The fourth division, the Secours à Domicile, and the establishment de Filature.

The fifth division, the general accounts and details of expenditure, directed by a member of the commission, who is entitled *ordonnateur général.*

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* An *arreté* of his excellency the minister of the interior, dated 16th July, 1823, suppressed the *Comité Central de Vaccine.* The expenses of this establishment, therefore, are no longer defrayed from the hospital-funds. The month of October following the gratis vaccinations were performed at the *Chef Lieu* of the Royal Academy of Medicine in the Rue de Poitiers.

In the course of the first quarter of each year, the administration of every hospital or establishment of charity must furnish a detailed statement of the movement and condition of their inmates; the number of births and deaths, of persons admitted and dismissed; the number, nature, and character of diseases treated in the house: In a word, the state of the establishment in all that regards health, economy, and aliment, with a general account of expenditure. Each member of the commission, in this way, having obtained a complete account of every thing connected with the administration of the establishments under his own immediate charge, lays it before the general council to be examined, and, after lying a year in the bureau of the council, it is placed among the archives. At the same time, a general *resmué* of all the statements is drawn up by a member of the council, to be distributed among the other members.

The bureaux are open from nine till four o'clock, and certain days and hours are appointed when persons may be admitted to obtain any necessary information respecting matters in which they are interested.

In order to provide a suitable fund for pensioning off the different members of the administration of the hospitals of Paris, a decree was passed, on the 7th of February, 1809, ordering, that *two centimes per franc*, or two per cent., should be deducted from the salaries every month to form a fund for this purpose. This deduction is only made up-

on those salaries which amount to one thousand francs and upwards; and, to prevent any confusion or mistake, a statement is annually given in to the general council of the various persons employed, and of the amount of their salaries. The deduction is made not only upon the sum received, but also upon a due valuation for lodging and food; the former being rated at one-tenth of the real salary, the latter at five hundred francs. As the regulation of 1809 could not apply to those persons already in employment, the general hospital administration allowed a fund of ten thousand francs, for the space of ten years, to make up deficiencies in those cases where no deduction had ever been made.

When any person proposes to retire, and applies for a pension, his demand must be taken into consideration by a member of the administrative commission. This pension can only be granted after thirty years of effective service; in which, however, are included all years of service in public offices connected with government, provided the claimant has been at least ten years in the administration of the hospitals. In cases, however, of grievous malady, of infirmity, age, or the suppression of his office, a pension may be granted before thirty years of service; ten years will then give a claim, of which five years may be in the administration, and five in a government employment. The amount of pensions is determined by the amount of the average or mean salary of the last three years of the

claimant's service. After thirty years the pension is one-half of this sum, with an increase of one-twentieth for every additional year of service beyond thirty. The *maximum* must not exceed two-thirds of the mean sum determined by the three last years of service.

The pension granted in the cases of infirmity above alluded to is one-sixth share of the salary for ten years, and under ten years of service. It is increased one-sixth share for every additional year; but it can never exceed one-half of the mean salary.

The widows and children of persons employed in the hospitals are also entitled to a certain amount of pension.

The preceding regulations apply to those persons only whose salaries during active service amount to 1000 francs and upwards; where they are less, relief is granted by affording them, when they have attained the age of sixty, a retreat in the institution in which they have been employed, or in other establishments destined for the same purpose. At the same time they receive a small annual sum of money, not exceeding one-fifth of their former salary. If unwilling to enter an hospital, they are entitled, in addition to the sum above-mentioned, to a small amount of pension, regulated according to their situation in the administration.

These pensions are liquidated, not out of a fund expressly for the purpose, as in the case of persons enjoying a salary of more than 1000 francs, but out of the general hospital-funds.

As cases often occur in which extraordinary assistance must now and then be afforded, an auxiliary fund is formed from a sum, not exceeding 2000 francs a-year, drawn from the pension-fund. This extra relief is destined:

1*st*,—For such persons as, being afflicted with sudden malady, have been prevented by a numerous family, and without any fault of their own, from laying aside sufficient for their support.

2*d*,—For those widows whom the service of their husbands does not entitle to a pension.

3*d*,—To widows and children of persons whose salaries did not amount to 1000 francs.

The regulations concerning pensions just mentioned were, by a decree of the 18th March, 1813, rendered applicable to the apothecaries of the hospitals and hospices of Paris; and further, by a decree of the 16th April, 1823, also to the almoners of those institutions.

The system of pensioning off all persons employed in these, as well as in other establishments of Paris, seems to be an excellent one; and on this account the preceding details have been more fully given than might otherwise have been called for. In England, also, in many cases of public service, pensions are freely granted; but the system is by no means adopted in the complete and universal manner so much to be admired in France, where it extends to all persons in employment, from the

highest to the lowest; and the fund out of which the pensions are liquidated is formed out of so small a deduction from the actual salary, that, while it secures them from want for the remainder of their life, and provides a certain support for their widows and children, its operation cannot be accounted a hardship.

The system of pensions in France is not confined to a few establishments. It forms a feature of every institution in which a number of persons are employed and salaried, either as administrators or as domestics.

The preceding details, however, apply more particularly to the hospital-administration of the capital; the officers of which are paid out of a fund formed by themselves. In the departments the number of persons employed is not sufficient for creating a fund. They have, therefore, no positive right to a pension; and what they do receive is taken from the hospital funds, and depends very much upon the character they have borne and other circumstances; of which the administration is left to judge. The rules concerning the nature, amount, and application of the pensions are the same as in Paris.

In the different minor administrations of the hospitals of France the same general features and regulations exist as in the capital; there are, however, trifling discrepancies, which are connected with the size and population of the towns or *cŏmmunes*. The administrative commission, which has the principal management of affairs, is composed of five

members, exclusive of the mayor, who is, *ex officio*, member and president. Of these members, one goes out by rotation every year. In all the towns and communes in which the prefect nominates the mayor, he also nominates the members of the commission; in those in which the mayors are nominated by the king, the members are chosen by the minister of the interior, on the presentation of the prefect.

The administrative commissions are assisted in their duties by the councils of charity, organized by an *ordonnance* of the king, of 8th February, 1823. Their co-operation is of great value in giving strength and publicity to the acts of the administration; and the moral weight of the members, at the same time, serves to lessen the responsibility attached to it. To use the language of the *ordonnance* itself, these councils, composed of the principal persons of every town, cannot fail to do much good, not only by the advice they are fitted to give, but also by the weight and influence of their names in the country. The members of the councils of charity are partly *ex officio*, and partly elective; the *ex officio* members are the archbishops and bishops, the presidents and procurators-general of the royal courts, or, in place of them, the presidents and king's procurators of the tribunals *de première instance*, the presidents of the tribunals of commerce, rectors of academies, the senior *curé*, the presidents of the consistories, the vice-presidents of the chambers of commerce, and the senior justice of peace.

The elective members are five in number, where the population of the town or *commune* does not exceed 5000; in all others they are ten. They are named by the minister of the interior, and one-fifth of them go out by rotation every year.

The councils of charity meet with the administrative commission and the charity bureaux to deliberate concerning the details of expenditure and revenues of the charitable institutions under their jurisdiction. For this purpose there are two regular ordinary meetings in the course of the year, fixed by the prefect; but, in case of necessity, they may be oftener called together.

According to a report made to the council-general of the hospitals, in 1816, by the Marquis dè Pastoret, the revenues of the hospitals and hospices of the realm, in the year 1789, amounted to nearly 30,000,000 of francs (£1,200,000), and, in Paris alone, the rental of their house-property was 3,408,600 francs (£136,344). When the National Assembly, in 1790, decreed the alienation of national property, it excepted for the time from that alienation the property of hospitals and all establishments dedicated to the relief of the poor. By different subsequent decrees, various alterations were made in the nature of the hospital-property; but, at the same time, when any of it was sold, the debts incurred were accounted national, and the property thus alienated was replaced by national property to the same value. The equivalent was granted in reference to the real produce of hospital-

possessions in the year 1790.* At a later period, the central authorities of the different departments were required to make a calculation of the proportion required to replace the property sold, and to draw out plans for each parish, arrondissement, and department, to lay before the minister of the interior. The conveyance of national property thus made to the hospitals was, however, only provisional; and, by a decree of 1805, it was ordered, that a complete report of the state of the hospitals

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* By a law of the 11th July, 1794 (23d *Messidor*, II.), the Convention decreed, that the passive debts (*créances passives*) of the hospitals, houses of refuge, hospices, charity-bureaux, and other establishments of beneficence, under whatsoever denomination they might be, should be declared national debts; and that their *actif*, forming part of the national property, should be sold, conformably to the laws respecting national domains. On the 29th July, 1795, the Convention heard a motion for the restoration of hospital-property, and, on the 24th of October following, partially suspended the law of 1794. But, in the meantime, the poor had lost three-fifths of their possessions. The directorial government, by a law of the 17th April, 1796, confirmed this suspension, and finally, by a law of the 7th October of the same year (16th *Vendémiaire*, V.), definitively revoked the order of sale; ordered that hospitals should retain their property, and that what had been sold should be replaced. Subsequent laws of the 17th February and 10th March, 1797 (29th *Pluviose* and 20th *Ventose*, V.), pointed out the manner in which the restitution should be made. But it went on very slowly, and it was not till the beginning of the 19th century that the hospitals were put in possession of a revenue any thing in proportion to their wants.

of France, of the losses they had sustained, and of their present necessities, should be drawn up, in order to ascertain how far they ought to be put definitively in possession of the revenues arising from it.

The effect of the Revolution upon the charitable establishments of the kingdom was in general injurious; but the injury came to be more felt after some time than at first. Some of those establishments suffered much more than others; for the unsettled state of the times prevented, in many cases, the property alienated from being replaced, and frequently, when it was replaced, this was done in the form of *assignats*, which caused a ruinous and irremediable loss. In many towns debts to a considerable amount were incurred, which have completely fettered the administration in their endeavours to extend the benefits of charity.

Upon the restoration of the present royal family, numerous questions arose concerning the right which hospitals had to the domains granted to them by various former decrees, and which consisted, in great part, of lands that had at one time belonged to that part of the population who had emigrated during the dangers of the Revolution. Many demands of restitution were made in different parts of the country; which, being taken into consideration by the prefects of the departments and the administrations of the hospitals jointly, were laid before the minister of the interior. The king promulgated several decrees to remove in some measure the con-

fusion and disputes that were likely to take place in consequence. By these, every thing that had been definitively made over to the establishments of charity in lieu of property sold or alienated was settled upon them; but, at the same time, wherever, upon a due valuation, it should be found that the conceded or temporary revenues derived from this source surpassed the value of the former and original revenues, the excess was to be restored by the hospital or hospice; in other words, wherever the present capital, transferred to the establishments of charity by the decree of 1800, was found to exceed the debts or former capital which it was intended to liquidate, the surplus was ordered to be paid to the emigrants to whom these funds originally belonged.

At the present time, the revenues which support the hospital-establishments of France are derived from various sources. The original funds made over to them having been converted into fixed rents, arising from acquisitions made either in land, house-property, or otherwise, the deficiency is made up from a tax levied on the receipts at the theatres and other places of public amusement, from excise-duties, and from other minor and less productive sources. The administrations of the hospitals cannot lay out their capital, except for the purchase of state-securities, without the authority of the prefect, for sums not exceeding 500 francs, and of the minister of the interior for larger sums. No purchase, sale, or exchange of property, can be made without the royal sanction; and to obtain this, the prefects of the re-

spective departments must give reasons for the proposed measure, and state the opinions of the councils of charity, of the administrative commissions, of the municipal councils, and of the sub-prefects, upon the subject.

The revenues of the establishments of charity in France, then, may be referred to the following sources:—

1. Realized and fixed property. (*biens fonds*), either in lands, houses, or public stock.
2. Legacies and donations.
3. Money paid by persons received into the hospitals and hospices.
4. Monts de Piété.
5. Theatres and other places of amusement.
6. Public verification of weights and measures.
7. Confiscations and fines.
8. Excise.

With regard to the first of these, the real property, it may consist in houses, lands, manufactories, forests, vineyards, and other possessions; the management of which must be always under the eye of the minister of the interior, who, with the royal sanction, authorises the mode in which it shall be conducted. It would be quite unnecessary to enter into any detail of the mode of management adopted in the various kinds of property possessed by the hospitals. Different laws, decrees, and ordinances, have been passed from time to time, to regulate how

it may be done with most advantage to the poor, and to point out, at the same time, the extent of power which the administrative commissions possess over the revenues, independent of the minister of the interior. The extent of territorial possession is by no means so great as it once was, and many hospitals, such as that of Strasbourg, have been deprived of large and valuable tracts of land, for which no proper compensation has ever been made. The lands they now possess, when at any distance, are farmed out under the direction of the minister of the interior, who regulates the duration and nature of the leases; when near the hospital, they are farmed by the administration itself, to raise the supplies that are demanded for the poor.*

Previous to the year 1811, the hospices of Paris were in possession of house-property to a great extent; the capital was valued at no less a sum than 18,000,000 francs (£720,000); by a decree of the 24th of February of that year, this property was ordered to be sold, and the price vested in the purchase of certain public establishments. One-half was to be laid out on the various markets of the capital, of which the estimated rents amounted together to 450,000 francs (£18,000); the remainder was to be paid gradually into the city treasury, and

* One fifth part of the price of burial-ground in the *Cimetière du Père la Chaise* belongs to the hospitals and hospices of Paris. The price of ground in this burying-place is 125 francs the *mètre*.

equivalents were to be given for it. Amongst others, a decree of 1813, was to make over to the administration the annual rental of the *Halle aux Vins*, amounting to 325,000 francs (£13,000), in lieu of a capital of 6,500,000 (£260,000), arising from the above sales. The markets of the capital, therefore, form a most important article of hospital-revenue, and one that requires a great degree of attention in the management. While the administration has in all respects the full right of regulating the details, of superintending all alterations, improvements, and repairs, of collecting the rents and choosing the tenants or lessees, the prefect of police has the direction in all that respects his own duties; and the salaries of the agents of police employed by him are put to account of the budget of the city. The persons employed as commissioners to collect the rents must find security, by a deposit of cash to a certain amount, which is paid into the Mont de Pieté, and 5 per cent. interest allowed upon it as long as it remains. Of late years the administration has expended a considerable capital in the construction of new markets, which have afforded a good return for the outlay.

The second source of revenue to the hospitals consists in donations and legacies: these, when they do not amount to more than 300 francs, may be at once accepted by the hospital administrators upon the authority of the sub-prefect. An account of their number, however, must be given quarterly by the prefect to the minister. When the sum be-

queathed is greater than 300 francs, its acceptance must be authorised by the king; and in any case where a doubt is entertained as to the propriety or advantage of accepting a legacy, the municipal council must be consulted on the subject. The amount of revenue from this source, of course, varies very much; at times it is considerable. According to the *resumé des comptes moraux* for 1822, it amounted in Paris to 91,478 francs (£3659), besides 1500 francs of rents.* Several persons have left very great legacies, which now form a permanent and highly-productive fund. Among these should be mentioned M. de Montyon, who bequeathed a clear capital, after paying all expenses, of no less than 5,200,000 francs (£208,000) to public institutions, of which, according to his wishes, three-fourths, or about 3,900,000 (£156,000) formed the share belonging to the hospitals of Paris.

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* The following is a list of the amount of legacies bequeathed to the hospitals and poor of France for a series of years:—

1814,	812,805 francs.
1815,	1,341,885
1816,	1,725,537
1817,	1,837,054
1818,	2,876,146
1819,	3,213,915
1820,	2,416,818
1821,	6,668,810
1822,	2,770,493
1823,	3,846,802
	27,505,265 francs, £1,100,210.

The next branch of revenue consists of money paid by persons admitted into the hospitals and hospices. This forms a very considerable sum in many towns. In the capital, the average is about 400,000 francs (£16,000). In Strasbourg also it is pretty considerable.

The Monts de Piété are the next source of revenue. By a law of the 6th of February, 1804, no establishment of this sort can be formed except for the benefit of the poor, and with the sanction of government. The great objects proposed by the Monts de Piété, when they were first set on foot, were to aid the poorer classes of society when in distress from any particular or unforeseen circumstance, and to keep down the rate of interest upon pledges. At present, as their profits are destined solely for the maintenance of the poor, no town is permitted to have a Mont de Piété in which the municipal and hospital funds are not of themselves sufficient to put it in full operation. In any other circumstances, by which strangers would come to share the profits, and thus pervert the purpose intended by its foundation, its establishment is not allowed.

The Mont de Piété of Paris is administered by a council composed of the prefect of the department, of the prefect of police, and of four members of the general council of hospitals; and it generally produces an annual sum of about 400,000 francs. As a source of revenue to the hospitals, therefore, the Monts de Piété may be encouraged, but they certainly do not seem calculated to be of much benefit to

the people in general. They allow of too great a degree of facility and secrecy in the pawning of goods, and thus become a means of increasing idleness and dissipation, and of bringing the thoughtless to ultimate ruin.*

A tax levied upon the theatres and places of public amusement forms the next source of revenue. This tax is ten per cent., or one *decime*, on

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* The *Mont de Piété* enjoys the exclusive privilege of lending upon moveable effects, 4-5ths of the value of gold and silver articles, and 2-3ds of the value of other effects.

To obtain a loan for a year, it is necessary to be domiciliated, and the charge is one per cent. per month. After this term, if not reclaimed, the goods are sold, and the surplus paid to the borrower, three years from the date of the certificate. There are appointed twenty-four commissioners in different quarters of the city to receive pledges. The following is a statement of the affairs of the *Mont de Piété* of Paris for the year 1824:—

ENGAGEMENS.				Articles.	Sommes.	Valeur Moyenne d'un Article.
Reliquat au 31 Decembre, 1823, - -				593,753	11,750,931 fr.	19 f. 79 c.
Engagemens pendant l'année, 1824, - -				1,149,060	19,310,052	16 80
			Total,	1,742,813	31,060,983	17 82
DEGAGEMENS.						
Valeur Moyenne d'un Article dégagé.	Effectués par	Articles.	Sommes.			
16 f. 26 c.	Retrait, -	970,792	15,782,396f	1,185,676	20,480,909	17 27
23 59	Renouvellement,	155,003	3,657,719			
16 81	Vente, -	59,881	1,040,794			
17 27	Total,	1,185,676	20,480,909			
	Restant en Magasin le 31 Dec. 1824,			557,137	10,580,074	18 99

Vid. *Recherches Statistiques sur la Ville de Paris, &c.*

a franc for all money received at the theatres. It amounts to one-fourth of the net receipts of all balls, public gardens, and amusements of every kind. Thus, while it is, in every sense of the word, a proper tax in a moral point of view, it is also a productive one. In the year 1820, it produced in Paris a sum of 491,955 francs (£19,678); in 1821, 627,686 francs (£25,101); and in 1822, 645,492 (£25,819).

By a law of the 19th May, 1802, it was decreed, that there should be established in all the *communes* to which this system was deemed applicable by government, offices for the verification of weights and measures, (*Bureau de Pesage, Mesurage, et Jaugeage Publics,*) and that their net produce, after a deduction of one-tenth to clear off expenses, should be employed in the liquidation of the debts of the communes and hospitals. A previous *arreté* of government, dated 1798, had ordered these *bureaux* to be established in towns having a population of more than five thousand souls.

Hospital-funds are also increased by money raised by fines and confiscations. All articles confiscated by the municipal police must be sold within a fortnight to the highest bidder. One-fourth of the proceeds goes to defray the expenses of the court, one-fourth to the support of the peace-offices and gratis law-establishments for the poor, another fourth to the municipality, and the remainder to the poor of the *commune*. When the confiscation is made by the correctional police, one-third goes to the municipality and the *tribunal de première instance*,

another to the peace-offices, and the remaining third to the poor. The fund is farther increased by the whole fines for contravening statutes of the university, and regulations of the state-lottery, as well as the money levied from the national guard for breaches of duty and discipline.*

The last great source of revenue to the charitable establishments of France is the excise. By a decree of 1800 it was ordered, that there should be established a municipal office of excise to levy a per centage upon articles of local consumption in those towns in particular where the civil hospitals had not revenues sufficient to maintain them. It is not, however, to this purpose alone that the money thus raised is applied; for the general, municipal, and communal expenses are also liquidated out of it, and the first article of the law of 18th October, 1798, correctly expresses the object of the municipal excise-office, (*octroi,*) when it declares, with regard to the capital, that it is specially destined to pay off the local expenditure, and more particularly that of the hospices and *Secours à Domicile.*

The hospitals of France draw a large revenue from this source. In Paris they receive an annual sum of about 5,164,000 francs (£206,560.) The

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* For the present, at least, fines levied from the national guard of the capital can form no source of revenue. That guard no longer exists. It is said, however, that proposals have been advanced for its reorganization.

other great towns receive a proportional sum according to their wants. The civil administration of the Strasbourg hospital receives about 80,000 francs (£3600.)

Such is a short detail of the various sources of revenue by which the charitable establishments of France are maintained. The produce of some of them is variable in amount; but the variation is of no great extent, and, on calculating the average receipts of one year with another, the difference will be found in general trifling. Though differing so much in their character, the expense of levying them is not great, and falls in but a small degree upon the administration of the charities; for, being mostly united with municipal and government revenues, the net sum is at once paid over to it, either monthly or at due intervals, according to circumstances. In drawing up a *resumé* of what has been above detailed, it will be sufficient to confine it to Paris, as the other towns of France differ in little or nothing, except the inferiority of the details and the smaller numerical denominations. This *resumé* shall be given for the year 1822. It is pretty nearly an average one; and, as it was characterized by no national or foreign calamity affecting any of the sources of revenue, it may be looked upon as giving a correct view. The revenues, in the first place, may be divided into fixed, variable, supplementary, and extraordinary, and the amount of each is as follows:—

Fixed revenues, . .	1,935,247	87 —	L.77,602
Variable revenues, . .	2,056,167	39 —	80,245
Supplementary revenues,	5,164,000	— —	202,560
Extraordinary revenues, .	39,521	51 —	1581
Total,	9,164,936	77 —	L.361,988

Of which some of the principal items are,

House-rents, . .	243,834	L.9753
Markets, . .	311,409	12,456
Interest from funded capital, .	707,158	28,286
Mont de Piété, .	455,652	18,226
Donations and legacies, . "	78,351	3134
Theatres and places of amusement, .	616,598	24,664
Spinning establishment, . .	303,552	12,142

The funds belonging to the different charitable establishments of France, derived from the sources above-mentioned, are placed under the charge of the administrative commission; the members of which, together with the members of the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance* in each canton, must take upon themselves all that regards the proper management, and must give in a regular monthly report to the central bureau of the municipal administration. One of the members of the commission is styled *ordonnateur*, and his special business is to sign and certify all papers connected with the money-details of the administration to which he belongs.

Conformably to a law of the 7th October, 1796, the revenues of all the hospitals and charitable establishments in the same *commune* are collected by a receiver, (*receveur*,) who is paid at their joint ex-

pense. He keeps a register of all that he does connected with the duties of his situation, and this register is examined once a month by the members of the administration.

The receivers of hospitals are nominated by the minister of the interior, out of a list of three candidates presented by the administrative commission, and approved by the prefect of the department. The rates of salaries and amount of securities to be advanced are regulated by the same authorities. The rate of security cannot exceed one-twelfth of the real value of the funds intrusted to them; but it cannot be less than 500 francs. Where the amount of receipts is enormous, as in Paris, where it is many millions, of course the rate of the security required must vary in a decreasing ratio, as one-twelfth would then become too great a sum.

The receiver must, within the first six months of every year, give in a statement of his accounts for the preceding year. These accounts being duly examined by the administration, are transmitted by the sub-prefect to the prefect, by him to be considered in council.

The receiver of the hospitals of Paris furnishes a security of 7000 francs of government *rentes*. He receives an annual sum of 40,000 francs (£1600) to defray all the expenses of his office. It is distributed as follows:—

Salary to himself, .	6000	L.240
Office-expenses, &c. .	13,200	528
Salaries of eight clerks,	20,800	832
	40,000	L.1600

From these salaries, as formerly explained, a deduction of two per cent. is made for the pension-fund.

In Strasbourg the receiver-general furnishes a security of 33,000 francs, (£1320,) and is paid an annual sum of 14,000 francs (£560) to defray the expenses of his office. In all the considerable towns, in Paris, Lyons, Marseille, Bordeaux, Toulouse, Lisle, Strasbourg, Nantes, Rennes, and others, in which the expenses of the hospital-establishments exceed 100,000 francs, an additional officer, named comptroller, is appointed, whose business it is to keep an accurate journal of receipt and expenditure.

In Paris the comptroller is chosen by the minister of the interior, and receives a salary of 4400 francs, (£176;) the clerk or assistant receives 2200 (£88.) All the persons employed in his office are nominated by the general council.

In such a system as that of the hospital-establishments of France, it is evident that cases must often happen which can only be settled by having recourse to the law. Wherever the administration in any department conceives itself aggrieved in a manner demanding judicial proceedings, it must, before taking measures to that effect, consult its own legal council in the first instance, then the council of charity, and finally the council of prefecture, which grants or refuses its authority.

By an *ordonnance* of 1804, a committee was formed in each arrondissement, composed of three lawyers chosen by the prefect. This was named the

comité consultatif. Upon an application from the general council of Paris, the members were increased to the number of five by an *arreté* of 1822. The functions of this committee consist in giving advice and assistance upon all points of legal dispute connected with the charitable establishments of the arrondissement to which it belongs. Its services are gratuitous.

It has been already stated, that the *comptabilité générale* of the hospitals and hospices is intrusted more particularly to one member of the administrative commission. By an *arreté* of 1808, he is ordered, in the course of each year, to make a summary of the probable sources and amount of revenue for the ensuing year, and to give a copy of it to the receiver. Any diminution or increase actually occurring upon the items contained in it are added by that officer.

By an *ordonnance* of the 31st October, 1821, every hospital is ordered to give in a budget of its receipts and expenditure annually. Whenever this expenditure exceeds the sum of 100,000 francs (£4000) for the establishments under the same administration, the details must be submitted to the approbation of the minister of the interior; when under this sum they are definitively regulated by the prefect. The municipal council of each *commune* holds an ordinary meeting in the month of May, in which is determined the sum to be accorded to the hospitals upon the excise and other municipal sources of revenue. The budget, therefore,

must be made up in April, and, after being examined by the council of charity, must be laid before the municipal council, with remarks and observations, that it may deliberate upon them, and upon the amount to be voted for the service of the ensuing year. If the hospitals are so well endowed as to require no aid from the municipality, their budgets are not presented to it. In the preparation of these budgets, all revenues in kind must be valued in money, according to the mean price the articles bear in the nearest market, in order that the real state of the revenue may be seen more distinctly.

Besides the general statement contained in these budgets of the nature and extent of the expenditure and receipt, of the diminution or increase of funds, and of the falling-off or improvement of the sources of revenue, the administrative commission must also draw up a full statement of the internal condition of the various establishments in their charge, under the following heads:—

Population and mortality.
Management of funds.
Medical and surgical service.
Buildings.
Expenditure and consumption.
Regimen, &c.

And in doing this each of the heads ought to treat at full length:—

1.—With regard to the fluctuation of the popu-

lation of each establishment, the number of sick persons, of paupers, of children, and of persons employed in the house-service; all this should be accompanied with observations which the population and mortality may give rise to.

2.—The augmentation or diminution of the revenues should be stated, with the improvement that may have taken place in their management.

3.—The professional service, both medical and surgical, should be detailed, with the changes it may have undergone, the diseases treated, and an account of any particular cases of interest.

4.—The state of the buildings should be described, as concerns the comfort and health of the inmates, the improvements made, and that still require to be made in them.

5.—Observations should be offered, suggested by the ordinary and extraordinary expenses of each establishment, the prices of individual articles, &c.

The statement thus made out is, with the receiver's accounts, laid before the council of charity, and, when the town furnishes any part of the funds, also before the municipal council, to be transmitted after examination to the prefect. By him it is also to be examined in council, and, if the total of expenditure exceeds 100,000 francs, it is forwarded to the minister of the interior.

In all the hospital-establishments of France particular attention is paid to the making up of accounts, and the degree of minuteness adopted goes

far in preventing abuse or confusion. In Paris particularly the accounts are models of accuracy, not less from the variety than from the minuteness of the details. This very systematic arrangement followed in France in all great establishments and public offices, though perhaps at times carried too far, so as to become almost trifling, must still, upon the whole, be accounted beneficial. The publicity given to the details of management, by regular printed statements, allows a judgment to be formed by the public, not only as to the amount of assistance granted to the poor, but as to the benefit produced, and the proportion it bears to the extent of funds expended by the administration. It acts at the same time as a check upon the abuse and confusion that would be apt to prevail were the establishments governed by a close or private administration.

The whole charitable funds of a town or *commune* are distributed, proportionally to their wants, among the various hospital and other establishments of the town or district. On a former occasion the amount of these funds was stated in the case of Paris; and in the following table, relating to Paris also, will be shown the amount of expenditure contrasted with that revenue, and the proportion in which the partition is made to the different kinds of charity:—

REVENUES.

The fixed and variable revenues of all the establishments under the direction of the general council amounted, in the year 1822, to - - 4,246,131=L.169,845

Supplementary credits.	Excise, -	5,164,000	5,564,000=	222,560
	Funds made over by the department to the Foundling Hospital.	400,000		
Extraordinary receipts, -			39,521=	1580
	Total,		9,849,652=L.393,986	

EXPENDITURE.

Hospitals and Hospices.		6,245,866	9,705,686=	L.388,227
Secours à Domicile,		1,679,577	9,303,835	
Foundlings,		1,378,392		
Extraordinary expenses.	Hospitals,	378,285	401,851	
	Foundlings,	23,566		
Surplus of revenue beyond expenditure, - -			143,966=	L.5758

A principal item in the accounts, particularly of the capital, is the expense of repairs and additions, not only to the hospital-buildings themselves, but the other house-property belonging to the administration, and from which a considerable amount of rents is drawn. This item frequently amounts to several hundred thousand francs.

By an *arreté* of the 24th of March, 1824, the

direction of all repairs and additions deemed necessary to be made in the hospitals of the capital, was intrusted to the care of four architects to be nominated by the minister, upon the presentation of the general council and of the prefect of the Seine. These architects are under the immediate orders of the administrative commission, and receive each a salary of 2400 francs (£96). They are required to furnish annual statements of the condition of the buildings connected with the hospitals, of the repairs that are necessary, and of the probable expense of those repairs. They are likewise expected to make remarks and observations upon the state of the hospitals themselves, with respect to any vices or defects in their construction, and to point out the improvements that ought to be made to increase the comfort and health of the inmates. The four architects are assisted in their duties by four inspectors chosen in the same manner, and each receiving a salary of 2100 francs (£84). Their business is to superintend personally all the works that are going on in their respective arrondissements, and to make weekly reports of their progress to the architects. In addition to the inspectors, the administrative commission names four officers, under the title of *verificateurs*, who are charged with the examination and verification of all works undertaken for the administration. They receive an annual sum of 5000 francs (£200), to be divided among them, and they and the inspectors together receive annually 2000 francs (£80), over and above their

salaries, which is distributed to those who have done their duty with most satisfaction to the commission.

In each of the three great hospitals of the Salpétrière, Bicêtre, and Hôtel Dieu, there is appointed an officer under the title of *piqueur*, to take particular charge of the buildings. These officers must see that every precaution is used to prevent the risk of fire, and must inspect daily the various buildings and operations of repairs that are going on. They are equally under the orders of the architects and of the *surveillants* of the hospitals to which they belong.

In the foregoing pages, a full detail has been given of all that concerns the general administration of the hospitals of France, of the different officers employed, and the duties and salaries attached to their offices. Before proceeding to give an account of the internal management of individual hospitals, it may not be uninteresting to find a list or table of the administration of the capital, and of the various officers employed about it. The administrative expenses are considerable; but when the immense revenues of the numerous charitable establishments, and the importance of a proper management, are taken into consideration, they will not perhaps be thought too great.

The moderate rate of salaries in France allows of a great division of public employment, without a proportionally increased demand upon the public purse; and, though some persons in France com-

plain of the administration being far too expensive, to an inhabitant of Great Britain it may not appear to be so, from the great amount of salaries generally attached to offices in that country.

The Administration of the Hospitals, Hospices, Secours à Domicile, *&c. of Paris is composed of,*

1. A general council of fifteen elective and two *ex officio* members.
2. An administrative commission of six members, divided into five sections, each having an office.
3. A general secretary.
4. A consulting committee of six lawyers.
5. A receiver, with a salary of 6000 francs, and having eight clerks under him, receiving among them a sum of 20,800 francs.
6. A comptroller, with a salary of 4400 francs, and having an assistant with 2200.
7. Four architects, each having a salary of 2400 francs.
8. Four inspectors, each having a salary of 2100 francs.
9. Four *verificateurs*, receiving 5000 francs among them.
10. Three *piqueurs*.

In drawing a parallel between the hospital-establishments of France and England, there are two points upon which the attention of the observer will be naturally fixed,—the nature of the revenues and the system of administration. On both of these

points the difference is very great; and though objections may be made to the plan of the one country as well as to that of the other, upon the whole, it must be allowed, that the mode of management in France is superior.

Nowhere in the world is charity so extensively and so liberally bestowed as in England; nowhere are there such numerous institutions for relieving want and alleviating distress; and nowhere are there to be found so many persons of all ranks ready to lend their names, their services, and their means, to increase and diffuse the benefits that may in this way be conferred; but, at the same time, it may with some justice be said, that charity is nowhere so much abused, and liberality so much imposed upon by the thoughtless and idle. The relief which ought to be received with gratitude, is often demanded and taken as a right to which the applicant is entitled, merely because he does not choose to labour; and, unfortunately, sufficient attention is not paid by the administrators of charity to discover who are the proper objects of it. In another place, where the means of relieving the general poor of France shall be more particularly examined, this consideration will be attended to in reference to the poor's-rates of England. At present the manner of administration, as connected with public establishments of charity, is the object of attention.

In England, every charitable establishment has an administration of its own, differing in every respect from that of any other. It is subject to no superior

jurisdiction, but liable to all the abuse likely at times to arise from the disputes and jarrings that will often take place between private individuals differing in their opinions, and guided by no regularly-organized system of management. The consequence is, that as one institution is independent, and is frequently, it may be said, the rival of another, there does not exist between them that cordiality and unity of plan which, while it goes far in preventing abuse, is of general benefit to all. It may be urged in opposition to this view, that the consequences here apprehended do not often occur; but, even supposing they are at present of rare occurrence, that is no argument for continuing a system which, however little it may be abused at the time, is, from its very nature, constantly liable to be so.

But many instances may be brought forward to prove, that the management of hospitals in this country is not in all respects what it ought to be, and that private interests and private quarrels have been the cause, if not of ruin, at least of great injury, to the establishments in question. In such a vast field as London presents, it would surely be of immense advantage to have some general council of administration to watch over the various institutions founded for the poor. This could not fail to have an influence in regulating and rendering systematic the operation of a mass of materials, of which the benefit, when their interests were conjoined, might be incalculable, but of which at present the effect

is certainly much less than what their means are capable of producing.

In most of the every-day concerns of business and life, opposition does good. It is a spur and incentive to improvement and discovery, prevents civilization from retrograding, and is the source of all our approaches to perfection. But in establishments of charity, it cannot possibly be of any service; and the erection of a rival hospital or dispensary suggests no idea but that of mismanagement and disagreement upon mattters on which all should be at one. It is frequently merely a means of throwing away revenues that might be better employed, or incurring debts which, in the end, are to ruin the establishment. The general feeling in this country certainly is adverse to the interference of the higher authorities, or, at least, of government, in establishments of any kind. But when the public interest is so deeply at stake, and when, on all hands, it is allowed, that the support of the poor is a necessary and proper tax upon the country, it appears absurd to object to a superintending system of administration, upon the grounds that every man is entitled to distribute his charity where and how he pleases, and that he ought in no respect to be subjected to control.

It is often objected, that government-undertakings are inferior to those of private individuals; that they are of too wholesale a nature, and do not descend sufficiently into details. This may be true in many things; but in the management of hospitals and hospital-establishments it is by

no means so. It will be enough to refer, in proof of this, to the several nations of the continent of Europe.

In these, where, in general, there are so many faults to find in government-measures, and where the spirit of improvement and discovery is so much kept under by government-interference, the most fastidious observer must confess, that the hospital-establishments are admirable in every respect; that they are maintained in a state that no hospital in this country can equal, or at least surpass, and that in all their details, whether medical, pecuniary, or household, they are models that may be followed with advantage. It may farther be urged, that the hospitals of France, which are now so admirably kept, were not characterized by this superiority until they came directly into the hands of government, and that while, previous to the Revolution, they were managed more like those of England, by associations and individuals, they were in no respect better than those of other nations. The improvements of late years are entirely owing to a system which proceeds from an authority that cannot be disputed, that can have no secondary interest to interfere, and that regulates and organizes the whole establishments of the country upon the same general and understood principles. It is impossible to compare the state of the Parisian hospitals previous and subsequent to the Revolution, without being convinced of the advantage of the present system. To use the words

of M. Tenon,* in his valuable memoir, " there was no hospital so ill-situated, so close, so unnecessarily crowded, so dangerous, and that united so many causes of unhealthiness and of mortality, as the Hôtel Dieu. Before that period there was not in the universe a house for the reception of the sick so important in its destination, and yet in its results so fatal to society."

The mortality was fearful to a degree that can scarcely now be conceived. Men, women, and children, afflicted with every species of malady, were crowded together, till the establishment might be said to present one mass of contagion. Yet the revenues were flourishing, and distinguished individuals of all ranks assisted and took an interest in the treatment of the unfortunate inmates.

Many of the other hospitals throughout the country were nearly in a similar state, yet without any deficiency of funds; for their revenues were often enormous, and derived from sources that were not liable to fluctuation or uncertainty from circumstances affecting the general prosperity of the nation. The cause of mischief in the hospital-management was to be found in the imperfection of system, the want of order and regularity, and the

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* *Memoires sur les Hôpitaux de Paris, par M. Tenon, Professeur Royal de Pathologie au College de Chirurgie, des Academies Royales des Sciences, &c.*

want also of a proper extent of superior jurisdiction. The hospitals and hospices were, with a few exceptions, managed by their own authorities, and not subject to any *surveillance;* their administration, consequently, was better or worse according to the characters of their administrators. Since the present system has been brought into action, these abuses and vices have disappeared. The administration, both general and particular, has been regularly organized; each hospital has its due number of inmates, without being crowded; each disease has its particular place allotted to it; mortality no longer presents so fearful an appearance, and order and regularity, in fine, have taken the place of disorder and confusion. With all this improvement the revenues have been in many cases diminished; but the complete order established in the administration, and the regularity adopted in the distribution of relief, have had the effect of making up in great measure for the enormous deficit, occasioned by the unsettled state of the times, in the property of the poor.

It seems desirable, then, that some degree of system for regulating the hospital-establishments of England should be adopted, by which charity, without being less universal, might become more efficacious. The charitable establishments in this country are so multiplied, and on so great a scale, that, on a calculation, the capital sunk in mere buildings for them in London alone would be found to be enormous. This multiplication, too, has the effect

of still increasing their number; for in those cases in which a wealthy person, from charitable motives, or from having no relations to provide for, wishes to bequeath his fortune to the poor, he has no feeling that leads him to benefit any existing institution, where there are so many, and those in general so private, and often exclusive, but he endows a new one, which adds to their number. In France, where the hospitals are public, and, it may be said, national establishments, every one feels an interest in them, and when he has money to bequeath, thinks more of increasing the general revenues of those already existing than of founding new ones. The advantages resulting from this state of things are undoubtedly great; for the funds thus bequeathed are more directly and more effectually applied to the purpose intended.

In praising the system of hospital-management in France, as superior to that of England, it must not be supposed that that management is faultless. There are two great objections to it: In the first place, the immense number of persons employed in the administration; and, secondly, the constant and often harassing necessity of applying to the minister of the interior concerning the most trifling details. Of the former of these evils, an instance may be given in the civil hospitals of the city of Strasbourg, where the administration consists of the following officers:—

1.—An administrative commission.

2.—A secretary.
3.—Two *expeditionnaires.*
4.—A *chef du bureau de comptabilité.*
5.—A *chef du bureau des tutelles.*
6.—Two *commis du bureau des domaines et du contentieux.*
7.—An *expeditionnaire* to the same.
8.—A receiver-general.
9.—A *chef de bureau* for the *hospice civil.*
10.—A *chef de bureau* for the Foundling and Orphan Hospitals.
11.—A keeper of the books.
12.—An agent charged with recovering property.
13.—A *garde-magasin.*
14.—A *commis expeditionnaire.*
15.—A comptroller-general.
16.—A *commis du bureau des contributions.*
17.—An assistant.
18.—A second assistant.

From this list it will be seen, that the general administration of the hospitals of a city, not having a population of more than 60,000 inhabitants, and without taking into consideration the numerous *personnel* attached to the hospitals individually, amounts to no less than 19 persons, whose joint salaries form a sum of 32,000 francs (£1280).

Such an establishment certainly is by no means called for, and merely serves to divert a considerable portion of the funds from their proper destination. Several officers are no doubt necessary to

manage the revenues, which consist in great measure of landed and other property; but, at the same time, there are here a division and multiplication of work that are quite useless, and unwarranted by the circumstances. The whole funds and revenues of the charities amount to little more than 700,000 francs (£28,000), and to manage this it costs 32,000 (£1280.)

In a small work, published in 1823, by M. de Kentsinger, mayor of Strasbourg, the author, who was himself *ex officio* president of the administrative commission, seems to be perfectly aware of this defect, and speaks with energy of this useless and unnecessary expense, so disproportioned to the extent of the establishment. In the introductory part of his book he alludes to former times, when the whole administration consisted of three clerks, termed *Oberschreiber*, *Mittelschreiber*, and *Unterschreiber*, and when, in all probability, the revenues to manage were as extensive as at present, if we do not suppose them to be more so, considering the extent of territory alienated by the national assembly.

The next objection that has been mentioned to the system of hospital-administration in France is the constant reference that must be made to the minister of the interior, even for the most trifling details. Laying aside other consequences to be apprehended from this arrangement, it is enough to say, that it produces a harassing and vexatious state of subjection on the part of the persons employed, who

cannot do any thing on their own responsibility, except in the most insignificant matters. This is not carried so far as it once was, the authority of the prefect being now in many cases sufficient. Still, however, it is carried far enough to occasion much embarrassment, without any proportional benefit.

The other great point of difference between the hospital-systems of France and England consists in the nature of the sources from which their revenues are derived. Many English hospitals are richly endowed, and possess funds to a very considerable amount; but these were founded a long period back, and have received gradual additions to their revenues during the lapse of ages. St Thomas's Hospital in London, for instance, was founded as far back as the year 1213, by a prior of Bermondsey, and, in the same way, St Bartholomew's was founded as early as 1102. Guy's Hospital was founded, by a rich merchant of that name, in 1721. These three hospitals have considerable property belonging to them, and are in consequence independent of public charity; but this is by no means the case with the greater number of charitable establishments either in the metropolis or in the other cities of the empire. In them it is almost to public charity alone that the administration must look for means of support. Of course the funds thus raised are variable. The source from which they are derived is too apt to be influenced by circumstances, and may fail at the moment when it is most re-

quired. From what has been said of the French hospitals, it is evident, that they in a great measure, if not altogether, are secured from any uncertainty or probable failure in their means of support. The funds, it is true, which they possessed previous to the Revolution, and which consisted often of great tracts of territory, have been alienated to a great extent, and too seldom replaced; but still a part of them remains. These, however, are less to be considered at present than the other sources that make up the deficiency which that partial alienation had produced. Amongst these sources, contributions from private charity are encouraged; but they are not pushed to the extent known in this country, where, at the same time, it may be observed, that the large sums that are raised come frequently from one class of persons, while the great body of the people are too much attached to business and pleasure to mind the calls that are made upon them. But in so necessary, and, it may be said, so national a matter, as the maintenance and relief of the poor, it is both fair and proper that the one class of persons should contribute as well as the other. In France this is accomplished indirectly; for, as has been already stated, one great source of revenue to the establishments of charity is derived from a tax upon the receipts at the theatres and other places of public amusement.

In Paris considerably above 600,000 francs (£24,000) are drawn from the theatres and other places of amusement, to be applied to the hospital-

establishments. This is a great sum when the moderate rate of admission in that city is considered; but could the same deduction be obtained from the receipts of the theatres, &c. in London, a sum considerably greater would be raised. The tax in Paris on the theatres is ten per cent., and on other places of amusement rather more. It is not easy to obtain an accurate average of the receipts in the London theatres; but they considerably exceed those of Paris. The produce of such a tax may thus be easily imagined.

With regard to the other sources of revenue by which the French hospitals are supported, it is not necessary to say much. In many towns of England there are certain small imposts levied upon various articles of consumpt, which might be made over with advantage to the poor, and which even, in cases of necessity, might be increased. But, upon the whole, the principal fault in the hospital-establishments of Great Britain is not the want of money to support them so much as the want of regularity and system in the distribution of that money, and in the administration of the institutions to which it is applied.

It is the leading fault, and the great matter of regret, that the enormous sums of money lavished in this country upon the poor should not be managed with more discrimination, with more attention to distinguish between poverty and idleness, and with that degree of unity of plan attended with so much benefit in other countries.

CHAPTER III.

PERSONNEL OF HOSPITALS.—SISTERS OF CHARITY.—BUREAU CENTRAL D'ADMISSION.—BOULANGERIE GENERALE.—CAVE GENERALE.—PHARMACIE CENTRALE.

A GOOD many years previous to the Revolution the attention of persons in France had been turned to the improvement of hospital-discipline, more particularly in the capital. In 1789 there were in Paris forty-eight hospitals and hospices of different kinds, in which more than 20,000 persons were received, but without any attention being paid to the proper classification of them, according to the diseases with which they were afflicted. At present there are about ten hospitals and twelve hospices supported by government, in which the whole service is so well managed, both with respect to the household and medical treatment, that what was formerly an object of terror and disgust is now contemplated with almost unmixed satisfaction.

The population of these hospitals and hospices, of course, varies very much, as will be afterwards seen; and according to that population is the number of the persons forming the *personnel* or administration. Each member of the general council, as formerly mentioned, has a special jurisdiction over

one or more hospitals, to which, of course, his notice is more particularly directed. But, at the same time, each hospital has an administration of its own, to which are subjected all the details of business connected with household-matters. An *arreté* of government of 1803 ordered every hospital-establishment to have an *agent de surveillance* (director), and an *œconome* (house-steward ;) but more recently the latter officer was not deemed necessary in the smaller hospitals. They are nominated by the prefect, on the presentation of the council and the approval of the minister, and are entitled to live, together with their families, in the hospital. The *agent de surveillance* is charged with all that concerns the management of the house, the *œconome*, with all the furnishings that are necessary for its support, under the inspection of the *agent*. As they have always a considerable sum of money in their hands, both of these household-officers are required to give security to a certain amount in cash, according to the size and importance of the hospital. The amount of security in Paris, as fixed by an *arreté* of the 23d June, 1819, varies from 3000 to 10,000 francs. The different establishments in the capital for supplying the hospitals with bread, wine, and drugs, have also their *agents*, who advance 6000 francs each as security.

In those hospitals, in which the duties of the *agent* are performed by the *Sœurs Hospitalières*, no security is required. The *agents* are salaried in proportion to the importance of their situation, and

the population of the hospital to which they belong: the salary varies from 1500 to 4000 francs. They must live entirely in the house, and must never sleep out of it, except with the permission of the administrative council. They are at liberty to supply their own provisions; but, at the same time, they may, if they choose, receive a ration from the house; in which case the sum of 400 francs is deducted from their salary. A similar deduction is made for their wives, should they be married; and, farther, a deduction for each of their children, under twelve years of age, of 100 francs. These rations, like every thing else in hospital-establishments, are fixed by *arretés* of the general council.*

The *personnel* of an hospital may be divided into two classes,—the one forming the household-service, and consisting of the agent de surveillance, œconome, Sœurs de Charité, almoner, and inferior domes-

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* As it may not be uninteresting to many people to know the nature of these rations, they are as follows:—

Bread, { Men, 1¾ pounds (84 decagrammes).
Women, 1½ pounds (72 decagrammes).

Wine, { Men, a pint (a litre).
Women, a half pint (50 centilitres).

Breakfast for men and women,
Milk, cheese, or an equivalent in fruit.

Dinner.

One half-pint (48 centilitres) of soup,—4 ounces (13 decagrammes) of boiled meat, or 8 ounces of raw,—5 ounces of roasted or stewed meat, or 8 ounces raw.

Supper.

5 ounces roast meat,—a quantity of vegetables.

tics; the other forming the medical service, and consisting of the physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, and *élèves*. Of these persons, none deserve notice more than the *Sœurs de Charité*, who may be said to have quitted the world to devote themselves to the relief of those unfortunate persons who people the abodes of misery and distress. Even in times when religion in France was almost a by-word, and when its ministers were abused and trodden down by a misguided populace, a certain share of respect was entertained for those congregations of charity, who made it the business of their lives to comfort the sick and afflicted. Mingling zeal with gentleness, they have spent the best part of their lives in the midst of much that is disgusting and revolting, and have rendered services to humanity which must merit general gratitude. They have, at the same time, introduced into the hospital-establishments economy and regularity, and in that respect are as valuable to the administration as to the sick.

The inmate of an hospital is alone qualified to speak with justice of the blessings which such attendance affords. Possessed of superior education, and, from their religious profession, placed above many of the worldly considerations which must affect nurses in general, the sisters of charity act at once as temporal and as spiritual comforters, watch over the sick-bed, sooth the prisoner in his confinement, and penetrate into the worst abodes of

misery, to comfort the distressed and instruct the ignorant.*

There are several denominations or congregations of these Sisters, and the hospitals in Paris receive

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* The praises here given to the Sisters of Charity are by no means more than they merit. It is only necessary to visit the hospitals of France to be convinced of this. Wherever they have the management, cleanliness and good order are conspicuous; whilst other establishments in which they are not employed present a great inferiority in those respects. M. Appert, in his *Journal des Prisons*, &c. in speaking of an ill-managed hospital, not attended by the sisterhood, adds, "La "première chose à faire serait, je pense, de confier l'administra- "tion aux Sœurs, dont le dévouement se retrouve partout et ne "se lasse jamais."

During the troubles of the Revolution, no blow was felt more severely by the hospitals of France, and by the poor in general, than the dissolution of these religious orders. M. Voltaire, in his *Essai sur les Mœurs des Nations*, in allusion to the *Filles de Saint Vincent de Paul*, has the following passage:—"Peutêtre n'est-il rien de plus grand sur la terre que "le sacrifice que fait un sexe delicat, de la beauté, de la "jeunesse, souvent de la haute naissance, pour soulager dans "les hôpitaux cet amas de toutes les misères humaines, dont "la vue est si humiliante pour l'orgeuil et si revoltante pour "notre délicatesse." M. Dupin, in quoting this passage, adds, if Voltaire had been acquainted with all the other hospitals of France, as he was with that of Gex, he would have extended his praises to twenty other similar communities. He would not have spoken with less respect of the *Sœurs de la Sagesse*, so humble, so cherished in the departments of the west, and to whom the French navy has intrusted all its hospitals from Toulon to Anvers.

their services according to the following arrangement:

The Hôtel Dieu and Hôpital St Louis, attended by the *Dames Hospitalières*, or de Saint Augustin.

The Hôpitaux de la Charité et de Necker, the Hospices d'Incurables, des Ménages, des Enfans Trouvés, des Orphelins, by the Sisters of Charity, or of St Vincent de Paul.

The Hôpitaux Saint Antoine, Beaujon, et Cochin, by the Sisters of St Martha.

The Hôpitaux de la Pitié et des Enfans Malades, by the Sisters of St Thomas de Villeneuve.

The hospitals of the other towns of France are in like manner attended by the Sisters of Charity and of St Augustin, and everywhere the value of their services is allowed.*

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* Of these congregations, that of Charity is the oldest. It was founded at the beginning of the 17th century, by Saint Vincent de Paul, and ratified by Jean François Paul de Gondy, archbishop of Paris, and cardinal de Retz. Originally the association of Charity consisted of females in such a station of life, that, while they comforted and assisted the poor, they could not descend to the more menial offices of attendance. This being the case, it was thought proper to admit women of inferior rank, to perform the more humble duties. These were, in a short time, formed into a society distinct from that of the Ladies of Charity, under the name of *Servantes des Pauvres de la Charité*, and put under the jurisdiction of St Vincent de Paul, at that period superior of the Congregation of the Mission, and after him under that of all succeeding superiors of the same institution. The duties of this society cannot be better expressed than in the words of Cardinal de Retz, in his in-

The regulations originally adopted by the Congregation of Charity were confirmed by a decree of the French government, issued on the 6th November, 1809. Many of these regulations, as connected with the laws of the country, are to be found in the *code civil.* They relate, amongst other matters, to the admission of novices. By them the *élèves,* or novices, cannot contract any engagement before the age of 16 years, and then only for the space of one year; at the age of 21 they may take the vows

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structions to it, concerning the purposes for which it was established:—" La Confrairie de la Charité des Servantes des Pauvres Malades des paroisses a esté instituée pour honorer la charité de notre Seigneur, patron d'icelle, en assistant les pauvres malades des paroisses et des hôpitaux, les forçats, et les pauvres enfans-trouvez, corporellement et spirituellement: corporellement, en leur administrant la nourriture et les medicaments; et spirituellement, en procurant que les pauvres malades qui tendront à la mort, partent de ce monde en bon estat, et que ceux qui guérissent fassent resolution de ne jamais offenser Dieu moyennant sa grâce, et que les enfans-trouvez soient instruits des choses necessaires à salut."—" Leur principal soin sera de bien servir les pauvres malades, les traitant avec compassion et cordialité, et taschant de les edifier, les consoler, et les disposer à la patience, les portant à faire une bonne confession générale, et surtout à moyenner qu'ils reçoivent leurs sacremens. Outre cela, quand elles seront appelées à leurs autres employs, comme d'assister les pauvres forçats, eslever les petits enfans-trouvez, instruire les pauvres filles; elles s'y porteront avec une affection et diligence particulière, se représentant qu'en ce faisant elles rendent service à notre Seigneur, comme enfant, comme malade, comme pauvre, et comme prisonnier."

for five years. In every case, the engagement must be made in presence of the bishop of the diocese, or of an ecclesiastic deputed by him, and of a civil officer, who frames the agreement, a copy of which is given to the society, and another to the municipality in the minor towns, and to the prefecture of police in the capital.

Though attached to a religious society, the Sisters of Charity retain the full power of disposing by will of any property they possess. They are, in this respect, like other citizens, subject to the civil code of the country.

The Sisters of Charity form a very numerous body, consisting of several thousand members, who are said to do the service of above 300 houses of refuge, either hospitals or otherwise, throughout the kingdom. In Paris, their establishment is in the *Rue du Vieux Colombier, Ancienne Maison des Orphelines.* The extent of their usefulness, both in comforting wretchedness and in teaching the precepts of religion and morality to the poorer classes of the community, will be afterwards more particularly noticed.*

Numerous as the objections are to the church of

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* The statutes of the Sisters of St Martha were approved of by a decree of the 14th June, 1810. From the first article of that decree it will be seen, that their duties are analogous to those of the Sisters of Charity :—" La communauté des *Sœurs de Sainte-Marthe* se compose de sujets qui se consacrent, librement et sans vœu, sous la direction d'une supérieure, au

Rome as a system of religion, and serious as the imperfections and vices are that characterize it, it must be allowed, that its members were never deficient in charity to the poor, and in readiness to relieve and assist the afflicted. The various orders of monks and nuns of all denominations scattered over the Roman Catholic world had these objects more or less in view at their establishment; and though very frequently the character of meekness and simplicity they ought to have possessed was lost among the irregularities too apt to arise from the unrestrained indulgence of ambition and other destructive passions, the poor always found in them easy and charitable masters, and many districts of the continent look back with regret to the time when church-government held over them a dominion marked with so little oppression and severity. In allowing this fact, however, it must not be supposed, that, on a retrospect, the subversion of the former system is justly to be lamented; on the contrary, though the poor at the moment suffered from the suppression of religious houses and the confiscation of religious property, they gained, in the end, in an-

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service des pauvres malades et à l'éducation gratuite des enfans."

A decree of the same year confirmed the statutes of the *Dames Hospitalières de St Thomas de Villeneuve,* and of the *Dames de St Augustin. La Société des Filles de la Sagesse,* who serve the institution of St Perine, was constituted in the year 1811.

other way. That slavish submission to the priesthood was dissolved, which had so long fettered exertion and encouraged idleness, and the intellectual powers being more fully called into action, superstition disappeared, and industry led the way to independence.

The French Revolution swept away the religious establishments of France, and confiscated their property; the French arms extended this confiscation to other countries. Notwithstanding this, however, both in France, Italy, and Germany, at the present time, there exist religious orders, who possess much of the charity just alluded to, with less of that pride and ambition which hastened the downfall of their predecessors. They possess no longer great revenues, no longer hold that station in society which used to render them so intrusive and overbearing; but have, with a few exceptions, become more the servants of the poor, than, what they once were, the masters of the rich.

The usefulness of that association known by the term of the Brotherhood and Sisterhood of Charity must be allowed on all hands. It is felt in Germany no less than in France, and in that country numerous hospitals are not only served, but are maintained by its members. The *Barmherzige Brüder*, as they are termed in Germany, were originally founded by a Spaniard, who built an hospital in Granada, and they subsequently extended rapidly not only in Spain, but in Italy and Germany. The number of hospitals founded by them at different

periods was very considerable, and towards the latter part of the 18th century there were very few towns of any consequence in Germany that had not one hospital at least, into which all were received who offered themselves, without distinction of religious creed. Many of these establishments still exist in Vienna and other cities, and are truly a blessing to the poor and afflicted.*

By the decree of 1809, the interior-service of the hospitals of France may be performed by the Sisterhood of Charity and the different religious congregations authorised by government. To this effect the administrative commissions in the various departments and towns agree with the superiors as to the number proper for each establishment, and as to the conditions of admission. All agreements, however, on this point must be approved by the minister, upon the recommendation of the prefect.

When the Sisters of Charity are attached to an hospital, they become subject to a double jurisdiction; that is to say, in spiritual matters they are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of the diocese in which the hospital is situated, while in temporal concerns they are under the authority of the admi-

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* The Barmherzige Brüder maintain at present in the states of Austria 27 hospitals. Into these, during the year 1800, there were received 12,389 sick, of whom 1138 died. The Sisters of the same denomination in Gallicia received, from 1809 to 1811, 6865 sick, of whom 889 died.—Vide *Bibliograph. Méthod. de M. Friedlander, p.* 23.

nistration of the establishment to which they belong, and to the regulations of which they must in every particular conform.

As already said, the general council or administrative commission regulate the number to be admitted, and these are amongst themselves subject to a superior, in conformity with the rules of their own body. Of course they are fed and lodged at the expense of the hospital, and receive in addition a certain sum of money for the purchase of clothes. This sum is trifling, seldom amounting to more than 30 francs for three months.

In conformity with an *ordonnance* of the 31st October, 1821, those sisters, who, from age or infirmities, are incapable of continuing their service, may be retained under the term of *Reposantes*, receiving free lodging and food. Should they prefer to retire, they receive a pension proportional to their term of service and to the state of the hospital-funds.

It will be unnecessary to make any mention of the other persons employed in the hospitals and hospices as domestics or workmen. These, of whatever denomination they may be, are appointed by the administration, and are salaried according to the regulations adopted by the prefects of their departments. The most general proportion in sick-hospitals is one attendant to ten or twelve inmates, —in hospices, one attendant to fifteen or more. In some towns, such as Strasbourg, in which, besides receiving the sick, the hospital has also the charac-

ter of an hospice,—so many of the old people of both sexes belonging to the establishment itself are employed and salaried as attendants on the *pensionnaires valides*, as they are termed; that is to say, upon those who are admitted as into a house of refuge, without being afflicted with any malady. Of course the salary they receive is small compared with that of the regular attendants.

When the Roman Catholic religion was once more established in the hospitals of France, various regulations were made as to the manner in which the public offices of religion should be performed. At present every hospital or hospice has one or more almoners according to its size, who receive free lodging and board, besides a small salary, varying from 600 to 1000 francs.

These ministers of religion are proposed by the administrative commission, and must be chosen from among the churchmen of the diocese; the direct nomination to be made by the bishop out of three candidates. Like the other members of the administration, they can retire after a certain period of service.

Before proceeding to give an account of the medical service in the different hospitals,—a branch of the subject of the highest importance,—it may be proper to consider some different establishments peculiar to the large towns, and more particularly to the capital, which are more directly connected with the household economy of these institutions. These are the *Bureau Central d'Admission*, the

Boulangerie Générale, Cave Générale, and *Pharmacie Centrale;* all of which in the capital are objects of great importance.

The absolute necessity in a large town of ascertaining precisely the nature and extent of those rights which entitle an applicant to admission into an hospital, as well as the great advantage resulting from a proper classification of the sick, according to the character of the maladies with which they are afflicted, render some establishment requisite, in which the proper inquiries may be made into the circumstances of such as claim the aid of public charity. To throw the hospitals at once unreservedly open to all who chose to take advantage of such liberality, would be attended with bad consequences. It would give facilities that would in a great degree increase the number of applications; and no fact is more undoubted, than that the greater the facilities of obtaining charity, the greater is the number of persons applying for it.

Particular attention ought to be paid to throw as much difficulty in the way as is consistent with humanity; and at the same time that portion of the public most likely to require assistance should be made aware, that it is not sufficient merely to apply for charity to receive it, but that they must prove their state to be such as precludes the possibility of their existing without the relief they claim. There is often too much laxity on this point; and many persons, from an anxiety to avoid an appearance of

harshness, have fallen into an opposite fault just as destructive to the best interests of society.

In Paris, where the hospitals are so numerous, and where, in consequence, there is more likely to be abuse, the want of some check upon a too indiscriminate admission was soon felt after the hospital-system had been fully organized. On the 1st Germinal, an. X., (22d March, 1802,) the Central Bureau of Admission was for the first time brought into action; and, by an *arreté* of the same year, all house-governors and medical officers were forbidden to admit, except in cases of great urgency, any person into the establishments under their charge who had not previously applied to the Central Bureau, and received a certificate from it.*

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* The end proposed by the formation of this bureau cannot be better explained than in the following words of the report, published in 1805:—"Le Bureau Central d'Admission a été créé par un arreté du conseil, du 13 Frimaire, an. X.; le but qui s'est proposé le conseil, était d'empêcher que l'on ne reçût dans les hôpitaux les individus qui ne sont pas malades, ou qui ne le sont pas assez gravement; une foule de fainéans, surtout à l'entrée de l'hyver, se faisait admettre dans les hôpitaux, non pour se faire traiter, mais pour y vivre sans rien faire; refusés quelquefois à la porte d'un hôpital, ils en trouvaient presque toujours un plus facile. Suivant le même arreté de 13 Frimaire, tout individu est tenu de se présenter au Bureau Central, qui le visite et lui remet, s'il y a lieu, le bulletin d'admission pour l'hôpital consacré à son genre de maladie; lorsque cette maladie n'est pas assez grave, il est renvoyé au traitement à domicile des Bureaux de Bienfaisance,

When the Bureau Central was first created, it consisted only of two physicians and two surgeons. At present it consists of twelve physicians or surgeons, each of whom is nominated by the minister of the interior from a list of five candidates given in by the general council. These medical officers must be at least thirty years of age, and they receive each a salary of 600 francs. Four must be on duty every day; two of them from eight or nine o'clock till mid-day, the other two from mid-day till four o'clock. Each member, therefore, has four months' duty in the course of the year, and the rotation is such, that two go out every month. Their business consists in examining the persons who wish to be admitted into the hospitals, ascertaining the nature or reality of their malady, directing them to the proper hospital, and giving them a certificate to that effect. Besides this, they give written and verbal consultations, and treat several species of disease, such as hernia, for which they distribute bandages gratis to the poor. As the number of beds in the hospitals is fixed, that they may be perfectly acquainted with the state of hospital-population a list of the vacant beds is transmit-

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ou bien on lui donne une consultation écrite. Les personnes attaquées de maladies graves, ou qui viennent de recevoir quelques blessures, sont admises sur-le-champ dans les hôpitaux, sans être tenues de se présenter au Bureau Central; mais le médecin ou chirurgien de l'hôpital doit être consulté par urgence."

ted regularly to the bureau before nine o'clock every morning. In cases where there is any doubt as to the nature of the malady, the applicant is sent to the Hôtel Dieu, there to remain till a farther examination is made into his case, which is done by two members of the bureau in the course of the day.

At the commencement of every quarter three members of the *Bureau Central*, not actually on duty, must make a visit through the various hospitals to inquire into the state of their inmates. This visit is made in presence of that member of the administrative commission charged with the respective establishments, and of the *agents de surveillance*. The patients who are found convalescent are then dismissed, and those that appear to be incurable are removed to other institutions more particularly destined for persons in that condition. The Bureau Central, in a word, admits into the hospitals only those persons who are afflicted with a disease that is curable or supposed to be so, and sends out of them those who are cured, infirm, or incurable, so that there may be no confusion with respect to the persons relieved respectively by the hospitals, hospices, and Bureaux de Charité. Though no person, under ordinary circumstances, can be admitted into an hospital without a certificate from the bureau, this rule does not hold good in cases of grievous or sudden malady, or accidents. The hospitals are then open without any previous application to it for a certificate.

The Bureau Central is situated *parvis Notre Dame*, and is open for the examination of applicants from nine till four o'clock every day. Connected with it is an institution for the treatment of children suffering from ringworm (*la teigne.*) This has existed for above twenty years, and is open on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays, from nine till twelve o'clock. There is also an office open every Monday and Friday at the same hours, for distributing bandages to such persons as bring a certificate of indigence from any of the bureaux of charity.

The extent of business performed by the Central Bureau for the year 1822 is stated as follows :—

		Males.	Females.
1.	19,059 persons admitted into the hospitals,	11,402	7,657
2.	1298 treated for ringworm, . .	662	636
3.	11,740 written and verbal consultations,	5979	5761
4.	1081 admitted into the hospices, .	389	692
5.	2416 bandages for, . .	1996	420
6.	70 persons sent to the bureaux of charity,	44	26
7	41 sick-nurses and children, .	—	41
8.	1560 sick visited in the hospitals, .	755	805
9.	233 persons affected with total or partial blindness, . . .	74	159
	37,498	21,301	16,197
		37,498*	

The absolute necessity of a Bureau Central, of course, can only be felt in a very large city like

* Resumé des Comptes Moraux et Administratifs des Hôpitaux et Hospices de Paris, &c. année 1822, p. 193.

Paris, where the public establishments of charity are numerous. In the smaller towns it becomes less necessary, as in them the duties being less multiplied, the administrators of charity can direct their attention more easily to make the proper inquiries into the case of the applicant. In Strasbourg, as in many other towns of France, every sick person bearing a certificate from one of the commissaries of police, or an order from the mayor, is admitted into the hospital. The surgeon upon duty is then required to visit him upon his admission, and indicate the ward to which he must go. According to M. Kœntsinger, who was himself mayor of Strasbourg, there does not appear to be a sufficient degree of restriction as to the admission of persons into the public hospital of that city; and it would appear, that, in consequence, the number of hospital-inmates is much greater than in many other towns proportionally to the population. Abundant as are the means of private charity, and though medical officers are appointed by the mayor to visit the sick and indigent at their own houses throughout the city and its suburbs, it would still seem that these provisions have not been attended with the proper and expected effect, solely from the circumstance that the number of beds in the hospital is too great, and the admission too indiscriminate,—another proof of the necessity of throwing difficulties, or, at least, formalities, in the way of those who take advantage of public beneficence. The inmates, who in the hospital, too, cost the administration a very con-

siderable daily sum, if their necessities required it, would often be much better satisfied in receiving a smaller sum at their own homes, and there having the attendance of the medical officers appointed to visit the poor. Their families would then contribute to their support, and the moral benefit obtained would not be trifling. It is Montesquieu who says, " *Malheur, malheur à l'état qui a beaucoup d'hôpitaux !*" And there is nothing more likely to obviate the misfortune so energetically denounced by that illustrious man, than a rigid degree of attention to the number, character, and circumstances of that class of persons who form the population of hospitals.

In Paris, as has been already mentioned, the effect of the Bureau Central has been to diminish sensibly the number of persons admitted into the hospitals. It is to be hoped that this diminution will be permanent, and that a wise administration will continue to use those salutary measures already productive of such good results in the state of establishments, which, not many years back, presented so indifferent an appearance.

The other establishments relative to the hospitals and hospices of Paris, and which merit particular notice, from their great extent, are the *Boulangerie Générale, Cave Générale,* and *Pharmacie Centrale.* These, like the *Bureau Central,* are more particularly necessary to the capital, where the great number of establishments render both economy and regularity absolutely requisite. In the provinces they

are more closely connected with the hospitals themselves, and are regulated upon principles which, essentially the same, still vary in certain points, according to the ideas of the local authorities who are interested in them.

The *Boulangerie Générale*, in which is made all the bread used in the various hospitals of the capital, is situated in the *Rue de Fer à Moulin, Faubourg St Marcel*, in a building formerly possessed by an Italian gentleman, Scipione Sardini, and hence named *Maison Scipion*. Up to the year 1818, the bread consumed in the hospitals of Paris was furnished by a *Manutentionnaire*. In 1817, however, the administration proposed to the minister, that the whole concern should be taken into their own hands, and, like the other hospital-establishments, be intrusted in charge to a member of the commission. The various regulations of council respecting this establishment are very precise and minute, both as to the quantity and quality of grain used, and of the bread made from it. When made, the bread is distributed at a certain hour of the morning to the various establishments in locked waggons, either belonging to them or to the Boulangerie. Should it happen that the bread does not give satisfaction, either as to the quality of material or the mode in which it is baked, the agents, house-stewards, or superior sisters of the respective hospitals, are called upon to give immediate information to the member of the commission who has the direct charge of the establishment.

The personnel of the Boulangerie consists of from 40 to 50 persons, who may retire upon the same footing, and under the same circumstances as the other persons employed in the administration.

The annual consumption of flour for the hospitals, hospices, and secours à domicile of the city of Paris, made into bread in the Boulangerie, amounts to between 21 and 22,000 sacks, of which 6300 are of first quality, and 15,160 of second quality. The weight of a sack is 159 kilogrammes, or about 354 pounds avoirdupois, and the quantity of bread made from a sack of first quality of this weight ought to be, in an average year, 205 kil. 50 dec. or 457 pounds avoirdupois, and from a sack of second quality, 209 kil. 50 dec., or 466 pounds avoirdupois. This quantity, of course, is liable to vary with the quality of the grain; but, at the same time, the variation is not great, and what has now been stated, therefore, may be accounted a fair average.*

The total general of the expense of the *Boulangerie Générale* for the year 1822 was 794,507

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* The price of bread in Paris is fixed by an *ordonnance* of police every fifteen days. The tax is established in relation to the market-prices of grain and flour in the interval of each *ordonnance*. In fixing the price of bread a product of 73.25 per cent. of white flour is expected from the grain, and a product of 102 loaves, or 204 *kilogrammes* of white bread per sack of 157 *hect.* 5; which gives, in bread, about 1.29 of the weight of the flour employed. By calculations more favourable to the bakers, however, the last denomination is raised to 1.34

francs (£31,781); which, according to the *compte sommaire* of that year, may be thus partitioned :—

Flour of the first quality, 6782 sacs, 8 kil. cost 347,398 francs,—making the mean price per sack 47 fr. 85 cent. (£1, 18s. 3½d.)

Flour of the second quality, 9039 sacks, 40 kil., —cost, 443,419 francs,—making the mean price per sack 43 fr. 80 cent. (£1, 16s. 0½d.)

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without including 6.75 per cent., arising from a surplus product of flour, when a particular description of grinding (named *mouture Anglaise*) is practised.

M. le Comte de Chabrol, in his Statistic Tables, gives the following statement of the variations in the price of bread in Paris for the years 1821-22-23-24:—

Price of a loaf of 2 kil.	Number of days during which the price of the White Loaf remained the same.				
	1821.	1822.	1823.	1824.	For the 4 years.
0,50 c.		95			95
0,55		37	61	212	310
0,56.75			15	30	45
0,57.50			31	32	63
0,58.75				16	16
0,60	61	233	111	15	190
0,61.25				15	15
0,61.50			15	16	31
0,62.50			47		47
0,64				30	30
0,65	185		85		270
0,70	15				15
0,75	31				31
0,80	73				73
Total of days.	365	365	365	366	1461
Mean price of 2 kil. of bread.	0,68 c. 22	0,59 c. 89	0,60 c. 35	0,57 c. 12	0,60 c. 64

The fine bread made was 1,357,938 kilogrammes (3,023,334 pounds avoirdupois); which, having cost 347,398 fr. (£13,896), gave a mean price per kilogramme (equal to 2 lbs. 3 oz. 5 dr.) of 25 cent. 58 mill. equal to about $2\frac{1}{2}$d.

The bread of second quality amounted to 1,956,437 kilogrammes (3,999,827 pounds); which, having cost the sum of 443,419 francs (£17,736, 16s.), gives a mean price per kilogramme of 22 cent. 66 mill., or nearly $2\frac{1}{4}$d.

The distribution of bread to the different establishments in 1822 was as follows:—

Hospitals,	236,602, 86	
Hospices,	542,837, 49	781,052, 06
Other establishments,	1611, 71	
Foundlings,		13,455, 17
		Francs, 794,507, 23

In the above prices are included all the expenses of baking, house-rents, repairs, salaries, transport to the different establishments, and, in fine, all the detail of expense connected with the Boulangerie.

Properly speaking, the *Boulangerie Générale* is intended for the service of the hospitals under the jurisdiction of the administration, and also of the Hospital des Quinze-Vingts and of the Deaf and Dumb. At the same time, the general council does not confine it to these, but gives authority to the persons employed in it to bake for any other institution that may find

it convenient to send its flour thither. In this case the flour must be kept apart from that belonging to the administration; and certain fixed charges are made for the baking and carriage of the bread. This charge, by an *arreté* of 1822, was fixed at five francs for every sack of flour made into bread for the bureaux of charity, and five francs five centimes for that made for the prisons.

The disastrous years of 1816 and 1817 raised the price of grain in France so high, that the administration had not funds sufficient for the purchase of the necessary quantity. A debt was in consequence incurred of 1,529,086 francs (£65,164), which was liquidated by the general council of the Seine. Anxious to avoid a similar occurrence another time, proposals were made for forming a fund, with the view of obviating the necessity of claiming assistance from the municipality at a period when it was likely the demands upon it would be so numerous and pressing. The proposal was approved of, and a sum of above 1,200,000 francs (£48,000) was granted from the budget of the city. Considerable discussion ensued as to the manner in which this sum should be disposed of; whether a reserve of grain should be purchased, in case of future scarcity, or the money be laid out to interest, and the purchase made according to the nature of existing circumstances. The prefect and his council were rather of opinion that the former plan should be adopted, and that 40,000 cubic quintals of grain, equal to about 20,000 sacks of flour, should be laid

up in store. The opinion of the hospital-council was rather opposed to this, and upon the simple ground, that there was very little chance of a year arriving so disastrous as to raise the current price of grain as high as the grain laid up in store would cost the administration. It was calculated, that at the expiration of five years the sum laid out by the administration in storing up the grain, without taking into calculation the interest of capital laid out in the direct purchase of storehouses, &c., would amount to 1,168,000 francs, which would raise the quintal of grain, originally purchased for 24 francs, to 40, 41, and the sack of flour to 85, 67.

But the period intervening from 1807 to 1821 offers only three years in which the price of a sack of flour rose so high as 70 francs, and the mean price of the fifteen years was no more than 64, 67. The administration, however, looked to another circumstance; namely, to the effect a great purchase of grain would have in a year when there might chance to be a scarcity; to the effect it would have in raising still higher a price that was perhaps already much more oppressive than in ordinary years. Looking to this consideration, and anxious that the general good should be as much consulted as possible, the administration came to the determination of laying up a store of grain in reserve. The quantity was fixed at 30,000 quintals, or between 14 and 15,000 sacks of flour, being about the annual average consumpt of the *Boulangerie Générale.*

The next establishment connected with the general administration of the hospitals of Paris is the *Cave Générale.* By an *arreté* of 1816, this *cave* was established in the building formerly occupied by the foundlings, and situated *parvis Notre Dame.* It contains all the wine consumed in the hospitals of the capital, except the Bicêtre and La Rochefoucauld, which are beyond the barrier, and is under the immediate direction of two members of the general council and one member of the administrative commission.

The member of the administrative commission is charged with the purchase of wine of such quality and in such quantity as may be required. The prisons of Paris, as well as the hospitals, are supplied with wine from the Cave Générale. Taking the year 1822 as an average, the quantity of wine laid in, in its original state, before being made up for use (*sans les coupages*) may be stated at 759,684 litres, or about 705,421 Paris pints,* and after the *coupages et additions,* at 1,150,658 litres,

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* A litre is equivalent to 61.02800 cubic inches=2.0171082 English wine pints.

The Paris pint contains 58.145 English cubical inches.

The English pint contains 28.875 cubical inches.

Hence, to reduce the Paris pint to the English multiply by	2.0171082
To reduce the English pint to the Paris divide by	

or about 1,062,177 Paris pints, being, for the sick, . . .	460,980
For convalescents, .	689,678
And for the hospitals in whole,	1,113,844
For the prisons, .	36,814
Total,	1,150,658 litres:

Of which the cost may be stated at 585,288 francs (£23,412.) It may again be remarked, that the hospices of Bicêtre and La Rochefoucauld being beyond the barrier, are not supplied with wine from the Cave Générale, and consequently are not included in the above statement. The total of wine consumed in them amounts to 286,374 litres (265,919 Paris pints.) To explain the meaning of the terms employed,—*wine for the sick and wine for convalescents*,—it may be mentioned, that, before the wine is sent from the *Cave Générale* to the hospitals, it is mixed with a certain proportion of water. This proportion is for the sick, one-third of water to two-thirds of wine; and for convalescents, two-fifths of water to three-fifths of wine.

The next establishment belonging to the hospital-administration of Paris is the *Pharmacie Centrale*; or General Laboratory, in which are kept and prepared all the medicines required for the use of the hospitals, hospices, bureaux of charity, and prisons of the capital. This is situated in the *Quai de la Tourtelle*, in the *Ancienne Abbaye des Miramiones*,

and is laid out in such a manner, that every convenience and facility for the composition and preparation of medicines, both mechanically and chemically, are there to be found. The building is large, and is divided into various compartments, containing an admirable collection of chemico-pharmaceutical substances. The various chambers in which these are contained are ornamented with the busts of men celebrated for their knowledge of natural history, botany, and chemistry, as well in ancient as in modern times.

There are three principal laboratories, besides store-rooms; one for the more trifling pharmaceutical operations, another for those which are on a greater scale, and the third for the more dangerous and important manipulation principally of the metallic medicines. There is also an amphitheatre, in which lectures on pharmacy are delivered, and a small garden in which certain plants in common use are raised.

The apothecaries attached to the hospital-administration of Paris are of two kinds; the one employed in the *Pharmacie Centrale*, the other in the various charitable institutions. Of these the former are to be considered at present; the latter come more properly under the head of the medical service of hospitals.

The *personnel* of the *Pharmacie Centrale* consists of a head apothecary, (*pharmacien en chef,*) of a superintendent of the laboratory, (*chef de service de laboratoire,*) a superintendent of stores,

(*chef de service de magazin,*) and of several *élèves.* The head apothecary, who must furnish a security in cash of 6000 francs, is nominated by the minister of the interior from a list of five candidates. He is required to be a member of the college of pharmacy, and at least thirty years of age. The other officers are chosen by *concours* from among the *élèves* of pharmacy. The *concours* is public, and takes place before a jury, composed of three apothecaries, one physician, and one surgeon, named by the administrative commission, a member of which commission sits as president. The examinations are upon the natural history of medicines, botany, chemistry, and pharmacy, and the candidates must perform upon the spot any pharmaceutical operations required by the examinators. As a situation in the *Pharmacie Centrale* is of greater importance than one in an hospital, the *élèves* are anxious to be removed from the latter to the former; and hence it frequently happens, that, without having recourse to the *concours,* a situation in the *Pharmacie Centrale* is given in recompense to an hospital *élève* who has conducted himself remarkably well, and has served a certain number of years. The head apothecary and the two superintendents are nominated for life, and can only be deprived of their situation by the minister on the representation of the council and commission. They must direct their whole attention to the *Pharmacie,* and can on no account keep any establishment of their own for the sale of drugs.

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The *Pharmacie Centrale* contains nothing that is not indicated in the *Formulaire Pharmaceutique à l'Usage des Hôpitaux, Secours à Domicile*, &c. of M. Parmentier. No preparation that is not contained in this *codex* can be made up without the special permission of the administration. Upon this point the regulations are properly very strict and precise. No new mode of preparation, or new medicine of any kind whatsoever, can be introduced into the hospitals without the express sanction and full authority of the general council.

The head apothecary, besides superintending the whole business of the *Pharmacie Centrale*, must also make regular visits to the various hospitals and bureaux of charity, to inquire into the state of their respective laboratories, and examine if the medicines there contained be not deteriorated by fraud or injured by damp. He also must regularly give a course of instruction to the *élèves* of the hospitals upon the nature of the various medicines, simple and compound, which are employed in the hospitals, hospices, bureaux of charity, and prisons.

A quarterly visit is paid by the administrative commission, attended by three *officiers de santé* belonging to the hospitals, to the storehouses and laboratories of the *Pharmacie Centrale*. All the parts of the institution are then particularly examined. Every three months the medicines are laid in, and two tried persons, the one belonging to the college of pharmacy, the other engaged in the drug-trade, are appointed by the commission to ve-

rify the quality of the drugs furnished, and value them according to the current prices.

In the small laboratories attached to each hospital, in particular, nothing is permitted to be made but what may be required at a short notice, such as purgative draughts, enemata, decoctions, and the like. In the prisons, likewise, the attendants may prepare similar medicines; and they receive for that purpose certain drugs, which are named and numbered accurately, to prevent any chance of mistake. An account of medicines furnished to the prisons is sent in, every three months, by the *Pharmacie Centrale* to the prefect of the department of the Seine, who pays over the amount to the hospital-funds. The *élève* attached to the pharmaceutical service of the prisons is paid by the city authorities. In the laboratories of the *Bureaux de Charité* nothing is permitted to be prepared but *tisannes, cataplasms, gargles, liniments, distilled waters*, and similar preparations. All other more complicated medicines must be obtained from the *Pharmacie Centrale;* and a certain sum is charged, in addition to the trade-price, for extra expenses of manipulation or transport. For the more simple articles this is six per cent., for others twelve per cent.

Besides supplying the hospital and other charitable establishments of the capital with medicines, the *Pharmacie Centrale* also furnishes what are termed *chirurgico-pharmaceutical* boxes for the recovery of persons in a state of apparent death

from drowning. It also makes up boxes of particular medicines for the cure of any epidemical disease that may chance to afflict any part of the kingdom.

The expense of the *Pharmacie Centrale* for the year 1822 may be stated as follows:—

Remaining in store on the 31st December, 1821,			82,787	60
Drugs purchased in 1822, ...			263,317	99
			346,105	59
Other expenses arising from repairs of buildings, salaries, and sundry expenses, . .			77,116	75
Total for every kind of establishment, .			423,222	34
Deduct from this what remained in store on the 31st December, 1822, ...	87,160	14	147,064	91
Drugs sold to the bureaux of charity, prisons, and other establishments, . . .	59,904	77		
Leaving total expense for hospitals, .			fr. 276,157	43
			(L.11,046.)	

This sum, partitioned among the inmates of the different hospitals and hospices, gives a daily average expense for each individual in the former of . . . . 14 c. 32 d.
and in the latter of 01 34

The expense of the *Pharmacie Centrale* for the year 1802 was 194,925 francs, equal to £7797 sterling.

In the other cities of the kingdom, the pharmaceutical establishments are attached directly to the hospitals, and are managed, as in the *Pharmacie Centrale* of the capital, by a head apothecary, and other officers under his orders. The expense, however, in this way, is in general proportionally greater, as may be seen from a calculation of the number of sick, and value of medicines consumed in them, comparatively with the hospitals of Paris. Thus, in the civil hospital of Strasbourg alone, the present annual expense of the laboratory amounts to about 23,000 francs, (£920,) for the treatment of less than 450 sick, and 500 aged and infirm; while in Paris, for the treatment of more than 5000 sick, and 10,000 infirm and aged, the value of medicines and attendant expenses does not exceed 270,000 francs (£11,000.) By calculation it is found, that the average daily expense of each individual in the Parisian hospitals, for medical treatment, is about *cent.* 15, and in the hospices *cent.* 01 48; that in consequence the average mean expense for both hospitals and hospices is about *cent.* 05 52. A similar calculation applied to the hospital of Strasbourg, however, will give a much higher average, namely *cent.* 07 for each individual, sick and infirm together.*

* As, in the course of this work, it will very frequently be found necessary to speak of the mean numerical values of certain quantities, it will be proper to make a few remarks upon the degree of approximation it is possible to attain to the real

The expense of the *pharmacy* of the Strasbourg hospital has increased very considerably of late

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mean value of an infinite number of individual values. Every one is acquainted with the ordinary process of obtaining a mean value from a series of numerical products differing from one another. In all statistical observations this process is necessarily much employed, and its correctness is in a ratio with the number of observations. It frequently, indeed, happens that by means of it we are enabled to arrive at the knowledge of the laws by which natural effects are regulated, although at the same time in ignorance of the causes. The accuracy of the result is affected by various circumstances; but chiefly by the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient number of quantities, and by the extent of difference subsisting between these various quantities. It is of importance, then, to arrive at a knowledge of the degree of approximation to which we have attained; and to effect this, the following is the formula, as given by M. de Chabrol in his interesting statistical researches on the city of Paris:—

Let $a \cdot b \cdot c \cdot d \ \ldots \ n$ be the individual values from which the mean result A has been deduced, and m the number of these values. A then is equal to the sum $a+b+c+d \ \ldots \ +n$, divided by the number m. Let the square of these values, or $a^2+b^2+c^2+d^2 \ \ldots \ +n^2$ be divided by m, and we shall have a quotient B representing the mean value of the squares. Subtract from B the square of the mean value or A^2, and divide the double of the remainder by m. Extracting the square root of the quotient, the quantity will be found which designates the degree of approximation, and which may be denominated g. The smaller then the value of g the nearer is A the mean value obtained to the exact value in search of.

The preceding results are expressed as follows:—

$$A=\frac{1}{m}(a+b+c+d \ \ldots \ +n)$$

years, without any proportional increase of sick or rise in the price of drugs to account for it. The years 1812 and 1813 jointly, including salaries of

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$$B=\frac{1}{m}(a^2+b^2+c^2+d^2 \quad . \quad . \quad +n^2)$$

$$C=\sqrt{\frac{2}{m}(B-A^2)}$$

Suppose we have found 4000 individual values,

1000 equal to 2
2000 equal to 5
1000 equal to 12

The sum of the values observed is $1000.2+2000.5+1000.12=24{,}000$, and this, divided by 4000 or the number of quantities, gives 6 for the mean value. The sum of the squares of the values is $1000.4+2000.25+1000.144=198{,}000$. This divided by 4000 gives $49\frac{1}{2}$ as the mean of the squares. Subtract from this the square of the mean value or 36, and $\frac{27}{2}$ remain. Divide 27 by 4000; extract the square root of the quotient $\frac{27}{4000}$ or $\frac{1080}{160{,}000}$. This root is $\frac{1}{400}\sqrt{1080}$. Effecting this operation, we have 0,08216, or nearly about 82 thousandth parts, which fraction represents the degree of approximation to the mean result.

It may be said, that the mean result of an infinite number of observations is a fixed quantity. It is this fixed quantity H which we have in view to attain. The mean result A, obtained from a number m of observations, approaches near to the value H; but still it always differs from it by a quantity H—A, which is very small.

persons employed, cost a sum of 28,681 francs (£1147); the years 1818 and 1819 cost no less than 43,000 francs (£1720); or, leaving out the extra expenses of salaries, the medicines alone, in the year 1812, cost 7870 fr. for 341 sick.

1813,	.	7992	.	344
1818,	.	12,441	.	440
1819,	.	13,251	.	434

This statement may be contrasted with the *Pharmacie Centrale* of the capital for the same period of time, and it will be evident that the latter has a vast superiority in the regular manner in which it is conducted;—a regularity of which the cause must be sought in a proper *surveillance*. The strict police of the *Pharmacie Centrale* prevents the chance of much abuse, and puts it out of the power of dishonest persons to make free with the medicines, or waste them unnecessarily.

In some towns of France a particular plan is adopted, which is found to answer well, and to be attended with pecuniary benefit. It is this:—A public laboratory is attached to the hospital, from which not only the sick of the establishment are supplied, but the public in general may purchase medicines. In this way the pharmaceutical expenses are much reduced, and at times are altogether or even more than covered by the profits of public sale. In the Hôtel Dieu of Lyons this plan is adopted, and it is undoubtedly an excellent one,

both for the establishment itself and for the public.*

Its pecuniary advantages are seen in the circumstance, that the profits of public sale cover and more than cover the pharmaceutical expenses of above 1000 sick. It is also useful to the public, since a laboratory of such an extent and of so general a nature is more likely to be well-conducted

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* The following letter from the mayor of Lyons, extracted from the small work of M. de Kœntsinger, to whom it was written, will explain fully the nature of the plan:—

" L'administration des hôpitaux de Lyon a toujours eu une pharmacie publique, où l'on vend les remèdes comme dans les autres pharmacies. L'administration a en consequence un pharmacien juré, qu'elle paie, et qui est censé à la tête de l'établissement.

" Cette pharmacie, qui est très-frequentée, loin d'être l'objet d'une dépense, est, au contraire, une branche de bénéfice pour l'hôpital; en d'autres termes, l'Hôtel Dieu trouve, dans la vente des remèdes au public, non seulement à couvrir la dépense de la pharmacie, mais il a quelquefois méme un bénéfice, après que tous les remèdes nécessaires aux malades ont été prélevés.

" J'explique mon idée par un exemple. Je suppose que les achats des drogues et leurs préparations reviennent à 100,000 francs de dépense.

" Sur ces drogues préparées l'hôpital prélève tout ce qui lui est nécessaire pour le service de ses malades, et ensuite ce qu'elle vend au public lui rapporte encore plus de 100,000 francs; d'où il suit qu'elle a tous les remèdes de ses malades *gratis*."—*Vide* a work on the *Hospices Civils de Strasbourg, par Antoine de Kentsinger, p.* 99.

and attended to by persons thoroughly acquainted with the details of pharmacy and chemistry than private establishments, which, however strict the medical police of a town may be, must often be served by persons not fully masters of their business.

The wines generally consumed in the hospitals of Paris, and indeed in all the hospitals of France, are those of the country, of good quality, but, of course, inferior in point of price and flavour. But wines of higher price and finer quality are distributed to the sick when deemed necessary by the medical attendant.

These wines, however, are not kept in the *Cave Générale*, or wine-cellars, but form part of the pharmaceutical establishment; and, in consequence, are kept in the *Pharmacies*, being considered more in the light of medicaments than of articles of common consumption. They are furnished by contract, and consist chiefly of Malaga and of the higher-flavoured and more powerful wines of the south of France, particularly those of Languedoc, Narbonne, and Marseilles. In the hospitals of France every degree of liberality is shown in the diet of the inmates, both as regards their liquid and their solid food; and whatever a physician may deem necessary for their cure is liberally afforded by the administrations.

The various drugs and other medicinal substances employed in the hospitals are divided into several classes or lots, each forming a separate article of contract, and they are always required to be of a

certain growth or quality; the price of the more uncommon is fixed by qualified persons, that of the more ordinary articles of daily sale by the market prices of the town.

The number of leeches used in France, from the nature of the medical practice, is very great; they must be furnished according to terms agreed upon between the contractor and administration, and their appearance and specific characters are examined by the head apothecary. If not of a proper colour, or if too large or too small, they are rejected; those of ordinary size, giving a weight of from $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ pounds per 1000, are accounted the best. In the *Pharmacie Centrale* of the capital, the person that furnishes them is required to keep a constant depôt of 40,000.

The regulations in force for insuring the quality of the drugs, are extended to all articles of common consumpt, such as meat, vegetables, fruit, fuel, and, in fine, whatever is necessary to the maintenance of the establishments, and the comforts and wants of the inmates. The administration having determined the quantity and quality of the substance wanted, advertises for contracts a certain period before the supply is required. Offers being given in, a public sitting of the commission determine which is the most advantageous. Samples, as far as possible, of every article are obtained, and laid out every year for inspection, in a room connected with the administration, where any person may be admitted intending to make an offer. The prices, and, as

near as may be, the quantities required, are attached to the individual articles. Though the contract is so far open to all, yet a certain degree of attention is paid to the characters of those who propose to undertake it; and for this purpose no one can be admitted to competition, without a certificate signed by three domiciliated merchants, or persons engaged in trade, as to the reputation he bears for uprightness and respectability.

In the advertisements, every thing is pointed out, with a remarkable degree of minuteness, that the administration require and expect; and to these, whatever they may be, the contractor must strictly adhere. Thus, in the article of butcher-meat, the advertisements give out, that the oxen must be from six to nine years of age, and weigh at least 600 pounds; that the sheep must be from three to five years of age, and weigh at least 24* pounds; and the calves from two to three months, and weigh from 80 to 96 pounds. The proportion between the consumption of these different kinds of meat may be stated at an average at three-quarters of beef to one-fourth of mutton and veal. Other kinds of meat, such as poultry, are accounted extra articles, and are bought accordingly, as ordered by the medical officers.

The same particular attention is paid to every other article; and it may not be uninteresting to such as wish to form an idea of the description and

* Vid. *Cod. des Hôpitaux,* &c. t. ii. p. 252.

quantity of the articles of consumpt in the vast establishments of the capital, to give a short table of the principal of these for the year 1822, with the average current prices annexed:—

For the Hospitals, Hospices, and Foundlings.

		Measure.	Quantity.	Fr.	Cent.	M.
Bread,	1st qual.	kilogramme,	1,344,738	—	25	58
	2d qual.	kilogramme,	1,952,646	—	22	66
Wine,	for sick,	litre,	461,645	28 cent. to 90		
	for conval.	litre,	934,125			
	Meat,	kilogramme,	1,168,826	—	64	—
	Vermicelli,	kilogramme,	6032	—	65	—
Vegetables,	dry,	litre,	311,537	16 fr. p. hect.		
	fresh,	kilogramme,	616,043	—	06 cent.	
	Rice,	kilogramme,	35,524	Car.	54	—
				Pie.	34	—
Butter,	fresh,	kilogramme,	11,004	2	05	—
	salted,	kilogramme,	15,336	1	55	—
	Prunes,	kilogramme,	39,962	red,	55	—
				blk.	36	—
	Eggs,	number,	1,022,639	52 fr. p. 1000		
	Milk,	litres,	240,749	—	25	—
Cheese,	de Comté,	kilogramme,	22,758	1	10	—
	de Marol.	kilogramme,	29,319	—	86	75
	Fish,	kilogramme,	31,615	—	60	—
	Potatoes,	kilogramme,	153,591	—	03	—*

* As the new French measures will occur frequently in the course of this work, it is proper here to state their relative value compared with English measures. The *kilogramme*, or most ordinary measure of weight, is equal to 2 *liv.* 5 *grammes* and 35, 15 *grains* of the French pound in use before 1795 = 15444·0234 English grains = 2 pounds, 3 ounces, 5 drachms, avoirdupois weight.

The *litre*, most usual measure of capacity, is equal to one

With respect to the cloth, linen, and other household materials for the use of the hospitals, there are regulations exactly similar to those already-mentioned. In fact, every thing works upon a plan laid down by the administration, presenting a code as imperative in many respects as the civil or criminal code of the kingdom. It is in the capital, of course, that its full operation is to be looked for, and the advantages of each portion of it, whether real or imaginary, to be discovered. In the provinces, the great general features are retained, the great details of administrative and household management are essentially the same; and where variations do occur in the more trifling details, they are seldom of great extent, and are either the consequence of local circumstances, or of a difference in the ideas of the prefects and other authorities possessing the right of jurisdiction. Like the system of public educa-

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décimètre = 3·93710 English inches, *cube* = 2·1133 English wine pints.

The *hectolitre*, dry measure, is equal to 100 *décimètres*, cube = 100 *litres*.

The *litre* contains 61·02800 English cubic inches.

The *hectolitre* contains 6102·80000 ditto.

It may also be added, that throughout the work, wherever French money has been reduced to English denomination, it has been done upon the supposition that *one pound sterling* is equivalent to 25 *francs*, which may be averaged as *par*.

By the table of the relative value of different monies furnished by the administration of the mint, the English sovereign, since 1818, is accounted equivalent to 25 fr. 20·80 c. and the shilling since 1818 = 1 fr. 16·14 c.

tion in France, that of public charities may be said to form more or less one vast whole, which, without being altogether dependent, yet in all its more important concerns, points back to the fountain-head of authority in the capital from which every regulation of vital importance is derived.

CHAPTER IV.

MEDICAL AND SURGICAL SERVICE.—CLINICS.—DISSECTIONS.

THE next subject to be considered is the medical service of the hospitals of France, and the various establishments and regulations connected with that object, either directly or indirectly. This cannot fail to be an interesting subject of consideration, and in two points of view it particularly claims attention: With respect, in the first place, to the benefits it imparts to the poor; and, secondly, to the extent of knowledge and practical instruction which it affords to young men engaged in the study of medicine and surgery. Throughout the great hospitals of France, the general medical service is in its essential characters the same; but there exists a difference in the nature and extent of instruction given in them. The difference depends upon the size of each individual town, and bears a relation to the importance of the literary institutions it possesses. This relation, however, must be stated as in an inverse ratio; for, in such towns as Paris, Montpellier, and Strasbourg, where the medical education procured in the

faculties is of so high a stamp, the hospitals are merely subsidiary; while, on the contrary, in those towns in which there is no regular medical school, the extent of instruction given in the hospitals is much greater.

In such towns, indeed, the hospitals form a species of secondary medical school, which often attains a considerable degree of celebrity, and which, though not entitled to confer the higher academic honours, still paves a way for obtaining them with advantage. In a town like Lyons, with an hospital containing above a thousand sick, it may be well conceived, that great opportunities must present themselves to the student in the practical part of his profession.

The medical faculties of France, which are alone entitled to grant full degrees, are three in number, situated at Paris, Montpellier, and Strasbourg. The secondary medical schools are situated in several of the larger provincial towns, and courses of medical instruction are instituted in the hospitals of other towns, as in Amiens, Angers, Arras, Besançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Rheims, Clermont-Ferrand, Dijon, Grenoble, Marseille, Nantes, Poitiers. The relative value of the instruction delivered in these various gradations of medical schools is regularly calculated, in case students, after having spent some time at the one, should wish to finish their education or obtain a higher academic degree at another. Thus, for example, after attending in the secondary schools or in the hospitals, where autho-

rized medical courses are delivered, and in which the degree of *officier de santé* may be obtained, should a person wish to take the full degree of *doctor* in a faculty, the inscriptions* he may have already made are by no means accounted equivalent to the faculty-inscriptions. The relative proportion of the two is struck as follows :—

20	Inscriptions in a secondary school	= 12 in a faculty.
16	. . . .	= 9
12	. . . .	= 7
10	. . . .	= 6
8	. . . .	= 5
5	. . . .	= 3

To obtain a degree of doctor, four years' study in a faculty is absolutely necessary. During which period the courses connected with the hospitals are these :—

In the second year of study, Clinical Surgery.
third year of study, 1. Clinical Surgery.

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* A student, before obtaining any degree, must have made a certain number of inscriptions, as they are termed;—in other words, he must inscribe his name in the public books of that school during the first fortnight of every quarter. Before presenting himself for inscription, he must show his register of birth; if he be a minor, the consent of his parents or guardians, and his diploma of bachelor of sciences or arts, according as the profession he is studying requires. No student is allowed to make an inscription unless he shows a certificate of good conduct from his teachers for the preceding *trimestre*.

In the third year of study, 2. Clinical Medicine.
fourth year of study, 1. *Clinique de Perfectionnement.*
2. Clinical Midwifery.

Those students who aspire only to the title of *officier de santé* must follow a three years' curriculum in a faculty. To obtain that title, however, it is not necessary to attend any regular medical school; having been for six years *élève* to a graduated doctor, or having for five consecutive years followed the practice of the civil or military hospitals, is held equivalent. The medical instruction to be obtained in the hospitals of France is good, and, from their size, extensive; and it enables many young men, who could but ill afford the expense attendant on a residence in the capital or the more frequented towns, to follow their studies with economy and advantage in the smaller towns, where living is comparatively moderate, and the temptations to extravagance less numerous and powerful.

In considering the medical service of the hospitals of France, attention must first be directed to the *personnel*, and afterwards to the clinical and other institutions connected with that department. The *personnel* consists of head physicians and surgeons, of ordinary physicians and surgeons, of inferior and assistant physicians and surgeons, (*médécins suppleans, chirurgiens-adjoints, et chirurgiens de deuxième classe,*) of apothecaries, and of *élèves* of medicine, surgery, and pharmacy; the number and proportion of whom in relation to one another depend upon circumstances. The extent of the

medical establishment of course varies with the size, importance, and population, of the respective hospitals. When large, there are always physicians and surgeons *en chef*, besides ordinary attendants. In the smaller establishments there are ordinary attendants alone. The proportion generally deemed necessary in a sick-hospital is one physician to about 150 sick. This, however, is not in all cases adhered to. Throughout the whole of France, the physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, are nominated to the hospitals by the prefects of the departments, from lists of five candidates given in by the respective commissions of administration. The prefects also possess the right of suspending them from their functions, but cannot deprive them of their situation without the sanction of the minister of the interior. In the capital the conditions required, before any one can be medical officer to an hospital, are,—

1*st*, For physician *en chef*, the age of 50 years, and employment in the civil or military hospitals of France for the period of 10 years.

2*d*, For ordinary physician, the age of 40 years, and a proportional period of service.

3*d*, For surgeon, the age of 30 years, and 10 years' service.

The regulations concerning the surgical service are much the same as those of the medical. In

both, as already mentioned, there are different gradations of rank, and both physicians and surgeons have assistant or adjunct medical and surgical officers attached to them, who fill their place in case of malady or other causes of absence; and, when the period of service of the former is out, in their turn receive the rank of full medical attendant.

In the different hospitals of the realm, the titular physicians, as they are termed, are nominated by the prefects. The assistant-physicians, however, are chosen by *concours*, after an examination,

1*st*, Upon Medicine and Anatomy.
2*d*, Physiology and Nosology.
3*d*, Hygiene and Therapeutics.
4*th*, Clinical Practice.

A medical jury decides upon the respective merits of the candidates, and where merits are equal, the choice is made by ballot. Any person wishing to start for the *concours* must give intimation at least fifteen days previously, and present his diploma, with proofs of having been six years in service. Surgeons of the second class (*de deuxième classe*) are in like manner chosen by *concours*, according to certain fixed forms. Their examinations are upon the different branches of surgery and the application of bandages; they must also operate on the subject. Their term of service in the capacity of assistant-surgeons in the capital is six years, and

they may be removed from one hospital to another, as deemed proper by the administration. This removal goes on gradually from the less to the more important establishments; and in this way they are enabled to see a great variety of practice under different medical officers, and to judge of the effect this difference has upon the progress of disease. In cases of any severe epidemic afflicting any part of the kingdom, the assistant-physicians of the capital may be ordered thither to observe its progress, and report to the administration its characters and features, and the mode of treatment it may require.

Many doubts are entertained as to the propriety of electing hospital-attendants by *concours*. The feeling of many of the most enlightened physicians of the continent seems decidedly against it; and it would appear, from what has been observed in some hospitals,—as, for example, those of Genoa, where the system is most fully adopted,—that it is not attended with good consequences. In fact, a public examination is one of those tests of ability that cannot be depended upon, and strong objections will always be brought forward against it. In France, it will, however, be seen, that this system is not carried too far, and that the inferior officers merely, who are young in years and in some measure fresh from the schools, are alone subjected to the trial; which, were it extended to the higher medical officers, would in many cases prevent able

and enlightened practitioners from coming forward.*

The period of visit in the French, and, it may be added, in all continental hospitals, is early in the morning: it generally commences at seven in win-

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* As a matter of curiosity, the form is given here of an advertisement posted up in several of the principal towns of France:—

"In May, the election of supplementary medical officers will take place for the Hôtel Dieu of Lyons. They take the duties of the titular physicians, when absent on account of bad health or otherwise. Those proposing to stand for the situation must give in their certificates at least fifteen days before the election. These certificates must be, a diploma of M. D., and proofs of having been six years in practice.

"After the period of service (which is ten years) of the titular physicians is past, the supplementary take their place according to standing.

"The trial will consist of four parts; in the three first of which the subject will be taken by lot. These will be,

"1. Medical Anatomy.

"2. Physiology and Nosology.

"3. Hygiene and Therapeutics.

"The 4th will be an examination on clinical practice.

"The opinion of the medical jury will decide; and among those deemed entitled to the situation the choice will be made by ballot."

The above advertisement is by no means confined to the town of Lyons. The administrators of the hospital, anxious that the choice should be as advantageous as possible, invite the medical men of other cities to advance their claims, and in this respect show a degree of liberality that deserves to be noticed. The advertisement just given was posted up at the *Mairie* of Strasbourg.

ter and at six in summer. This is decidedly superior to the English system, according to which the visits are made in the middle of the day. Considering the exacerbation so frequently attendant on disease during the night, it ought to be accounted of the highest importance to observe as early in the morning as possible the effects produced upon the progress or symptoms of a malady by the manner in which the night had been passed. At a time when it is likely a change may take place in the state of the patient either for better or worse, instead of allowing that change, whatever it may be, to run on unobserved till late in the day, it ought to be immediately attended to and acted on. It frequently happens, in consequence, that a practice which might have been adopted at what may be termed a critical period, is put off till it probably fails to produce the good effects that might have been looked for had it been administered in time. In France the visits of the medical officers are much more lengthened than in this country, as they last for nearly three hours at a time; and, in addition, the *officiers de santé* must make a visit to their respective wards between the hours of four and eight o'clock in the evening.

The physician is attended in his rounds by an *élève* of *médecine*, an *élève* of pharmacy, and by the head overseer (*infirmier en chef*). Each patient has a table at the head of his bed, divided into eight columns, under the following titles:—

1. Number of his bed.
2. The patient's number.
3. The number of days passed in the hospital.
4. Ordinary food (*régime gras*).
5. Meagre food (*régime maigre*).
6. Surgical applications.
7. Internal remedies.
8. Death, or date of cure.

On these tables the prescriptions of the physician are written, and at the close of the visit the whole are brought to get the medical officer's signature, as well as the signature of the *élèves* on duty. The *élève* then copies off the prescriptions, whether for surgical or medical aid, or for food, upon different slips of paper, which are immediately sent to the respective parts of the establishment; and an *élève* must always be present at the distribution through the wards.

The preceding regulations apply equally to the surgical and to the medical service. The head-surgeon in his rounds is accompanied by the under-surgeon and by an *élève* in surgery. All great operations are in general performed by him; but he may at times depute the inferior surgeon to operate for him, and, in the more simple surgical cases, the *élèves* are even permitted to handle the knife, always, however, in his presence. The regular duties of the surgeons of the second class consist in attending to all the details connected with the surgical practice, seeing that every thing is prepared

for the chief surgeon's visit, and that his orders are strictly attended to, and inspecting the apparatus and instruments belonging to the *élèves.*

Once every six months the medical officers of an hospital communicate with the general council, or with the administrative commission; at which time they state any thing remarkable that may have occurred, and any change or improvement they may deem necessary to be made for increasing the comforts of the inmates. They also point out to the notice of the council those of the *élèves* who have distinguished themselves by assiduity, attention, or talents. The medical officers are also called upon to make regular visits to the store-rooms, laboratories, and other parts of their respective establishments, to see that every thing is conducted aright, and that no abuse is creeping in.

The pharmaceutical service of the hospitals of France has been already noticed in speaking of the *Pharmacie Centrale* of the capital. It may, however, be mentioned, that the regulations which affect the physicians and surgeons apply equally to the apothecaries. They are elected in the same manner; that is to say, by the prefects of the different departments, from a list of five candidates proposed by the administrative commission. In Paris, the large hospitals only have a head-apothecary; the service in the smaller ones does not require that, and is often performed by the Sisters of Charity. This is in consequence of the existence of the *Pharmacie Centrale,* in which all the mani-

pulations and preparations are performed that require a great knowledge of pharmacy and chemistry. In the hospitals themselves, as already mentioned, only the very simplest preparations are made.

The next branch of hospital-service to be considered, is the system of *élèves*, so universally and so beneficially adopted throughout France. Besides the ordinary medical students who attend the hospitals during the visits of the medical officers, there are another set of students, known by the term of *élèves*, who are connected with the hospitals more directly, and form part of the medical service. They are divided into medical, surgical, and pharmaceutical *élèves*, and are attached, accordingly, to different parts of the establishment. Their number is regulated according to circumstances and the opinions of the medical attendants. The *élèves* may be deemed somewhat analogous to the dressers of the English hospitals; but, at the same time, the analogy does not extend very far. Their duties are much more important and multifarious, and they perhaps more resemble the clerks, or even the house-surgeons. The *élèves* of medicine and surgery are divided into two classes, into *externes* and *internes*; the latter residing in the hospital, the former not. They are both chosen by *concours*, the form and manner of which are regulated. For the *élèves externes*, this *concours* takes place on the third Monday of November, and for the *élèves internes* on the first Monday of December of every year. The jury

of examinators consists of five physicians and surgeons belonging to the hospitals and hospices. To become *élève interne*, it is necessary to have been for at least one year an *élève externe*. The one is a step to the other, and very much depends upon the candidates' behaviour, as those who have conducted themselves best get the preference, where there is but little difference in their respective appearances before the examinators. To become an *élève externe*, the candidate must be at least 18, and not more than 24 years of age; must present a certificate, proving that he is a bachelor of sciences, and has studied medicine and surgery for the period of one year at least; he also must produce his register of birth, and proofs of good conduct up to that time. The examinations are public, and upon every subject connected with their profession. A certain number of questions being thrown into a vase, the candidate draws from them, and is allowed eight minutes to compose his verbal answer. For those questions to which written answers are required he is allowed two hours; during which time he is enclosed in a room, without communication with any one. The answers in writing are sealed, and at the next meeting of the examinators are opened and read publicly; after which the jury retires to consult upon their merits. The number of *élèves externes* for the hospitals of the capital is 150. They must follow the medical officers in their daily visits regularly, and should they absent themselves from these visits more than four times a-month, they lose

their situation. They must apply to the medical attendant once a-month for a certificate of good conduct and assiduity, which is then presented to the commission, to be afterwards brought forward in their favour, when a vacancy may occur among the *élèves internes.* No one can be an *élève externe* longer than a certain period, and should he fail of obtaining the situation of *élève interne* his third year, he must quit the hospital.

The regulations respecting the *élèves internes* are much the same as those of the *externes*, with the difference of a few slight formalities. They are chosen from the others, after a service of one year either in the Hospital or *Bureaux* of Charity. Before being allowed to enter upon trial, they must produce certificates of attention and good conduct. The *élèves internes* are distributed through the different hospitals of the capital, according to their period of service. For this purpose, the hospital-establishments are divided into different classes in reference to their importance as schools of medical instruction, in the following manner:—

1. The more distant establishments of the Bicêtre, Salpêtrière, and St Louis.
2. The ordinary and smaller hospitals of the city.
3. The two important hospitals of La Charité and L'Hôtel Dieu.
4. The special hospitals de la Maternité and des Vénériens.

A vacancy in the fourth class is filled up from the

two first; and the *élèves* of the *Charité* and the *Hôtel Dieu* finish their practical education in the *Maternité* and *Vénériens.*

The *élèves internes* of medicine and surgery, besides being lodged in the hospital, receive an annual sum of 500 francs. If supplied with food and fuel, this sum is reduced to 100. Their period of service is four years, and they are allowed a leave of absence, varying in duration from one to two months, according to circumstances,—their duties, in the mean time, being performed by an *élève externe;* during the rest of the year they must remain constantly in the hospital. Whilst their general duties consist in attending upon the medical officers, and seeing that what they prescribe is duly administered to the sick, one or more of them, in particular, must always remain upon guard, as it is termed, (*élèves de garde,*) for the space of twenty-four hours; during which period they can, under no pretext, quit the hospital. Their duty there consists in attending to the changes that may unexpectedly occur in the state of the inmates, and informing the medical officers of them when they are important. In fact, during the twenty-four hours they are thus on guard, they must constantly keep their eyes upon every thing that goes on in the hospital, and be ready to receive any new inmates, or cases of urgency.

The *élèves* receive regular instruction in anatomy and surgery in their respective hospitals, and have each a certain number of patients under their immediate charge; every circumstance of whose cases

they must particularly attend to. The cases they draw out are collected every three months, and from them is constructed the great tabular view of the medical constitution of the year, which is full of so much interest to the physician, the philosopher, and the statistical inquirer. This table states the rate of mortality, and the causes of its increase or diminution; the nature of the prevalent diseases, their *type*, the causes of their exasperation or of their mildness; the character of the remedies employed, the good or bad success attending their administration; finally, the cures performed, and the extent to which they may be modified, shortened or lengthened, by seasons, professions, country, and other causes. Such tables are of the highest interest and utility, and, being printed and distributed among the students and the public, they give an impulse to the progress of medicine and surgery by the light they throw upon the nature and success of the practice adopted in the treatment of disease in the hospitals. A similar account of the various surgical operations performed, and the success attending them, is made up in a like manner, and forwarded to the school of medicine, there to serve as a text-book of observation and instruction to the student.*

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* It is much to be regretted that this custom is not more followed in hospitals of this country. It gives us pleasure, however, to quote the following resolutions adopted by the

Strict attention is paid to ensure the regular attendance of the *élèves* to their hospital-duties. For this purpose there is a sheet of paper (*une feuille de présence*), on which every *élève* must sign his name, and which is forwarded before mid-day to the administration. The omission of a signature is accounted a proof of absence, and every month a report is made of the number of times the *élèves* have been absent, and punishments are awarded accordingly. The right of standing for the *internat*, that is to say, the situation of *élève interne*, depends entirely upon the regularity with which this leaf is signed. Should his signature be omitted

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directors of the Glasgow Infirmary. They will not fail of producing excellent results:—

"1*st*, That, for various reasons, it becomes highly desirable that as much light as possible be thrown on the nature, localities, usual progress and termination of the diseases received into the infirmary from Glasgow and the wide district around, so that materials be annually furnished for a medical and statistical history of the state of health and disease in the said city and district.

"2*d*, That with this view, each physician and surgeon, more especially each physician, besides noting, as usual, the names and ages of his patients, be requested also to specify the following particulars:—Their trade or occupation; their place of residence; if in Glasgow, what part of Glasgow; if in the country, what shire or county; whether their abode be in dwellings apart from others, or in hamlets consisting of a few houses, or in towns or villages; with remarks, if such occur, on the healthiness or unhealthiness of situation," &c. &c. *Vid.* Glasgow Infirmary Report for 1827.

three times in the course of a month, he cannot be included in the list of those who aspire to the *internat.*

Besides the *élèves* of medicine and surgery, there are also *élèves* of pharmacy, who are placed under the head-apothecary. They are all *internes*, and receive an annual sum of from 700 to 1000 francs. They are chosen by a *concours* upon the manipulation and preparation of drugs, held in the *Pharmacie Centrale* before a jury of examinators. They are required to be at least twenty and not above twenty-four years of age, and must produce proofs of having studied practical pharmacy for three years, or having been three years in a military hospital. Some of the larger hospitals have a superior class of *élèves*, termed first *élèves:* their period of service is six years. The period of service for ordinary *élèves* is four years; and, when removed to the *Pharmacie Centrale* of the capital, two years. The *élèves* of pharmacy, like those of medicine and surgery, may be removed from one hospital-establishment to another.

The system of *élèves* adopted in the French hospitals is an excellent one, and well adapted to give a complete practical education. Its advantages are, indeed, so self-evident, that it is almost unnecessary to detail them. In the capital, more particularly, with so many hospitals, in which every variety of disease may be studied, and every difference of treatment observed, it is hardly possible to conceive a form of education that can surpass it in practical

utility. Three or four years' close attendance, not only upon one but upon several hospitals of all kinds, opens the mind and matures the judgment as to the superior advantages of one mode of treatment over another; and the opinions thus formed are not the result of theory and speculation, but of actual practice and observation.

This mode of education, too, is accessible to every one; for the expense at which it may be obtained is very trifling. The *élève* is supplied with lodging, and in many cases with food and fuel, besides receiving a small sum of money; and this advantage, in a country where the courses of lectures are delivered in the Faculties gratis, puts it in the power of the very humblest to aspire to situations which are given to talents and industry in preference to interest.

It will not be necessary to say more of the medical service of the hospitals of France, except, that to those in which pregnant women are admitted there are attached an *accoucheur*, assistants, and *élèves*, much upon the same footing as the physicians and surgeons.

In Paris, where there now is a special hospital for lying-in women, the other hospitals have no such establishment. But in the provinces the case is different; and in many of their hospitals a certain number of beds are destined for the reception of persons in that state. On a future occasion particular mention will be made of the *Maison d'Accouchement* in Paris, as an institution deserving of

great praise for the admirable manner in which the details of its management are conducted, and as a school in which are formed and instructed the principal midwives, not only of the capital, but of the whole kingdom. At present, the mode in which the midwifery-service of the provincial hospitals is conducted may alone be mentioned, and the civil hospital of Strasbourg may be brought forward as an example of the footing on which it is maintained. In this hospital there are thirty beds destined for lying-in women. Adjoining to the ward is a room in which the lessons are given to the *élèves sages-femmes*, whose names, together with the exact dates of their entry, are inscribed on a framed table, in order to prevent any chance of confusion respecting their turn of duty. To entitle an *élève* to practise publicly, she must attend the hospital for two years, and may then settle herself in the town or its neighbourhood. Entering from the lecture-room there is a small chamber, containing one or two beds, on which the delivery of the inmates takes place, and the regulations followed are these:—The moment a woman is taken in labour she is removed from the open ward to this chamber, and in a few moments the *élèves* are all in attendance. If the case be an ordinary one, the *élève* whose turn it may be proceeds to deliver; should the case appear at all difficult, the head-midwife takes charge of it herself; and should it happen to be attended with extreme difficulty or danger, perhaps requiring the use of the knife, she must then call in

the professor of midwifery. The *élèves* are not permitted to deliver till their second year of study; and at the close of the second year they are, after due formalities, distributed throughout the country to follow their profession. Every night one *élève* must sit up, in case of sudden labour. These regulations are much the same in all the provincial towns of France, whether the lying-in establishment be connected with the general hospital or with the hospices of the town. In Lyons it is in the *Charité*, and regular courses are there delivered to the females studying midwifery.

Having now considered as fully as the nature of the work will permit, the *personnel* of the hospital-establishments of France, the next object of consideration is the system of clinical instruction so successfully adopted in all the medical schools of the kingdom. This system is now carried to its full extent; and in France, and perhaps even more in Italy and Germany, it forms the most important part of the general medical education. It is only requisite to look at the courses of study necessary to be followed in the continental universities before obtaining their academic honours, to be convinced of the great importance attached to clinical instruction. In the French faculties, in the great schools of Pavia, Padua, Vienna, and Berlin, clinical medicine and surgery are held to be of the highest consequence; and in all these towns the clinical institutions are conducted in a very admirable manner. The progress of clinical medicine was by no means rapid,

and the study of it must be accounted of very recent date. The earliest Greek physicians, however, certainly founded their system on observation, and drew their remarks very much from that source, and may therefore be said in some measure to have taught clinical medicine; but after them, observation ceased to be the guide of physicians, and theory and speculation took its place. The effects were injurious to the progress of the science, which no longer made any advance. Many great hospitals existed; but they were looked upon solely in the light of charities to relieve suffering humanity, and never were accounted a means of imparting or receiving instruction; the idea was not entertained, that in them the study of medicine could be prosecuted with most advantage. The theory of medicine was alone attended to; speculations, often of the wildest kind, upon the nature of man, were the subjects of writings and of lectures, and the real source of knowledge, the practice of the art founded upon observation, was never thought of. In the various celebrated schools of Europe, that sprung up during the course of the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries, and in which it might have been expected that a greater degree of attention would be paid to the real method of teaching the science, little or no progress was made. The whole extent of teaching consisted in the delivery of lectures and disquisitions upon subjects of the most abstruse, and, at the same time, as to real benefit, of the most trifling description. For ages, then, medicine was stationary, and, with the excep-

tion of the Arabians, who for a period threw some light upon it, the severe rules pointed out by Hippocrates were not followed. That author was indeed looked up to and admired as the father of the science, and his aphorisms were repeated with veneration; yet the idea never occurred, that to understand and make the proper use of what he had recommended, it was necessary to acquire a deep and intimate knowledge of the nature and history of disease in all its forms, and under every circumstance of constitution, age, climate, and treatment. The consequence of the speculations which amused the physicians of those times was, that diseases were treated according to some preconceived theory, without any attention to the various external circumstances which so often alter and change their type. The only object was to guard their favourite theory from being disturbed.

Towards the middle of the 17th century, some symptoms of improvement in the study of medicine presented themselves. Several Dutch physicians began to give more attention to the history and progress of malady, and to found their treatment upon the result of these observations. Though at this period, therefore, it could not be said, that clinical instruction was established, yet the impulse had been given, and the illustrious physicians who distinguished the commencement of the 18th century were too acute not to perceive, that small as the progress had hitherto been, still, such as it was, it had already been attended with benefit. Clinical

institutions were accordingly founded in various towns of Europe; at Leyden, Edinburgh, and Vienna in particular, clinical medicine rapidly gained ground, and other towns to a greater or less extent soon followed the example.

In the capital of Austria, clinical medicine advanced with the most rapid strides; and during the 18th century the medical school of that city attained a high pitch of celebrity and consideration. Van Swieten, Störck, de Hæn, Stoll, Hildebrand, and many other illustrious persons, exerted all the influence of their powerful talents to advance the study of medicine upon such principles as could alone place it on a firm and immovable basis. In the hospitals of Vienna, their lectures were publicly given, and, instead of arguing upon points of theoretical controversy, which only tended to confuse and mislead the student, they exemplified and explained the subject of their discourse by the state of disease observed at the patient's bed-side. A great degree of severity was introduced in the plan of study; the instruction became more solid and more defined; the distinctive characters of diseases were marked more minutely, and the effect of circumstances, whether external or internal, on the progress and appearance of their symptoms, was more particularly attended to. To the school of Vienna, and to the many celebrated men who composed it, the study of medicine owes much of its rapid progress during the last century.

In France, during the eighteenth century, there

certainly existed a sort of feeling of the necessity and advantage of clinical medicine; but, at the same time, it could not be said that any regular clinical instruction was to be obtained in that country. In the numerous and extensive hospitals, courses of study could be followed; but, even with the opportunities there presented, observation was by no means the groundwork of the science. Too little attention was paid to the real characters of disease, and to the causes of their variety, and too much speculation pervaded the writings and lectures of the French physicians. The latter half of the eighteenth century in France was certainly not the period when an alteration in the system of teaching could be expected. While theory and speculation formed the basis, if it may be so said, of every branch of science that was taught in the schools, and when the ideas of men were confounded by the specious opinions of writers, whose works showed more ingenuity and sophistry than power of mind or depth of reasoning, it could not be supposed that medicine alone was to shake off the trammels imposed upon science in general. The whole ended, as might have been foreseen, in the destruction of every thing connected with science and improvement. But this effect was transient; anarchy and theory passed away, and science once more arose in a form much better adapted for extending its benefits to the world at large. Upon the restoration and reorganization of the medical schools, clinical instruction was particularly attended to, and clini-

cal professorships were formed. In Paris, Strasbourg, and Montpellier, the progress was rapid; and, in the present day, the student finds there the means of obtaining the true knowledge of a profession so essentially founded upon observation and comparison.

In the medical schools of France, clinical education is divided into different branches, into medical, surgical, and obstetrical. In some of the Italian schools there are also clinics for diseases of the eyes, and a fifth branch, which may be termed medico-chirurgical clinics. The clinical courses are given either in reference to the whole hospital, or to certain portions of it. In Vienna the clinical patients are placed in a separate building, and receive a greater proportion of comforts than the other hospital-inmates. In Padua they are placed in separate apartments, fitted up in an excellent and appropriate style, under the superintendence of the indefatigable Brera. In the hospitals of France, clinical observations are collected not merely from separate clinical establishments, but from the whole hospital-population generally speaking. In those towns, however, in which there are medical faculties, the clinics are put on a more distinctive footing, and belong as much to the medical schools as to the hospitals.

After the reorganization of the medical school of the capital, it was fixed that there should be four professors charged with clinical medicine, three with

clinical surgery, and one with clinical midwifery. In Montpellier and Strasbourg, in like manner, there are so many clinical professors.

By an *arreté* of the minister of the interior of July 1824, the future constitution of the clinics of the school of medicine of Paris was determined as follows :—

At the Hôtel Dieu, ...	one medical clinic. one surgical clinic.
At the Charité, . . .	one surgical clinic.
At the *Clinique de la Rue des Saints Pères* connected with the *Charité*, .	two medical clinics.
At the *Hospice de la Rue de l'Observance*, . . .	one surgical clinic. one obstetrical clinic.

The number of beds in these clinics varies from thirty to fifty ; the one-half for men, the others for women. The patients are generally sent from the *Bureau Central;* and, if the professor wishes examples of any particular maladies, he informs the members of that bureau. No patient, however, can be sent, on any account, to the clinical wards, except of his own free will. His treatment, when he is there, is the same as that of the other inmates of the hospital ; at the same time he may receive from the administration any thing the professor may deem necessary to recommend.

The students who attend the clinics are admitted on presenting a ticket signed by the dean of the faculty of medicine and the hospital-governor. All the inferior officers employed in the service of the

clinics are nominated by the Faculty on the presentation of the professors, and are chosen in preference from among the *élèves internes* of the hospitals. The clinical *élèves* are not permitted to enter the wards unless in the presence of the professor, except in particular cases, in which it is necessary they should observe the progress of any malady.

In the hospital of the *Rue de l'Observance*, situated exactly opposite to the School of Medicine, and forming, it may be said, an integral part of it, there are about sixty beds, partly surgical, partly obstetrical. The patients admitted are only such as present remarkable cases; ordinary ones are not received; for the object of the establishment is to finish off the clinical education of the student after he has attended the clinics of the Hôtel Dieu or Charité. On this account, it is named the *Hospice* or *Clinique de Perfectionnement*; and, according to the regulations of the faculty, is to be attended during the last year of medical study. It forms a most useful and necessary addition to the School of Medicine, especially in such a town as Paris, in which the hospitals are at some distance; and, as it contains remarkable and sometimes anomalous cases, it serves in an excellent manner to finish a course of medical education of a very complete and admirable kind.

In the three clinics connected with the faculty of medicine in Paris, and situated in the *Hôtel Dieu*, the *Charité*, and the *Hospice de Perfectionnement*, lessons are given every morning, and during the

whole year, between six and ten o'clock. After visiting the patients, observing the change of symptoms for better or worse, and remarking any alteration or other circumstances connected with the patient's state, the professor retires with his students to the amphitheatre or lecture-room, there to make those remarks and observations which the preceding visit may give rise to, and to question his hearers as to the state of the cases under their charge.

After a student has closed his period of study, and is examined by the members of the Faculty, previous to obtaining the degree of doctor in medicine or surgery, his fifth examination is confined altogether to clinical medicine or surgery, according as he wishes to follow the one or other branch of the profession.

In Strasbourg the clinical patients are lodged in a building situated a small distance from the great hospital, but in the same enclosure. It is divided into apartments, varying in the number of beds, and generally of small size. The visit commences at seven o'clock in the morning, and the patients being distributed among the students, when the physician or surgeon approaches the bed, that student in whose charge the occupant may be comes forward, and on the table which hangs at the bed-head writes down the nature and appearance of the symptoms, the change for better or worse since the last visit, the manner in which the night has been passed, the state of the pulse, and other circumstances that may be observed. No medicines are

ordered at the moment. After finishing his visit, the professor with his students proceeds to the lecture-room, where all the tables containing the state of the different patients are laid before him. He takes up each of these in turn, and, calling upon the student whose name he observes on it, questions him as to his opinion of the patient's state, and the cause of any amelioration or aggravation that may have appeared in the symptoms of the complaint. A discussion in this way takes place between the professor and the student, in which the other students frequently take part, and in their turn question the professor as to his reasons for following any particular course of treatment, and as to the probable effects of the remedies prescribed, and his object in prescribing them. After some conversation, the professor asks the student what medicines or practice he would recommend and under what form. If he receives a proper answer, he at once writes it down on a column of the table lying before him; should the answer be confused or unsatisfactory, he proceeds to question the student as to his grounds for giving such an opinion, and alters the prescriptions to what they ought to be. The whole conversation during the visit is in Latin,—the proceedings in the class-room are in French. As in Paris, Strasbourg, possesses medical, surgical, and obstetrical clinics, and they are taught by professors of the Faculty, who have the right of choosing from among the inmates of the hospital any cases they may deem interesting subjects of clinical instruction. In Mont-

pellier the system is on the same footing as in the other medical Faculties of France; the clinical courses are, in like manner, given by professors of the Faculty, and the fifth examination of candidates for medical degrees is entirely confined to clinical practice.

In the course of study for degrees, whether of doctor in medicine or doctor in surgery, the same extent of clinical education is necessary; medical and surgical clinics in both cases are equally attended to, and equally obligatory. This also happens in many other continental universities, and especially in those of Italy, and the reason of it is a good one: It proceeds upon the principle, that no physician can be a good one unless he knows all that a surgeon ought to know; and, in like manner, that to be a good surgeon it is necessary to have all the education and know all the duties of a physician.

Some judgment may be formed of the importance that is now attached to clinical education in France from the short sketch that has been given in the preceding pages. It will be unnecessary to enter at present into any farther disquisition upon the advantages attending it,—advantages which are fully allowed to exist by every practical man. It is to be regretted that the school of Edinburgh, so celebrated over the continent for its clinical instruction, long before clinical medicine was at all attended to in France, should now be so far behind in that respect. It would be a work of supererogation to enter into a detail of the importance, nay, almost

of the necessity, of increasing the means of clinical study in the University of Edinburgh, after the very able paper published during the course of last year by Dr Thomson. That paper distinctly points out the benefits that would follow the establishment of several regular clinical professorships, and the superiority that foreign schools possess on that point. It is not intended here to go into any argument on the subject; but, referring to Dr Thomson's pamphlet those who wish to have more extended information, it is now proper to finish this short account of the professional service of the hospitals of France by a description of the amphitheatres connected with the hospital-establishments, and with the school of medicine, in which practical anatomy is taught in its minutest details.

In the capital, practical anatomy can only be taught in the amphitheatre of La Pitié and of the School of Medicine; the former attached to the hospital of the same name, and situated near the King's Garden, the other situated in the *Rue de l'Observance*, and forming, with the *Hospice de Perfectionnement*, what is termed the practical school. These are the only establishments in Paris in which dissection is allowed. In the other hospitals, of course, bodies may be opened, to ascertain the cause or seat of disease, but in no case is the dissection allowed to go farther. But the facilities afforded for the study of practical anatomy are exceedingly great, and it may almost be a question if they are not too great, and if a too constant sup-

ply of bodies has not the effect of producing a slovenly habit of dissection. Still there is not a doubt that the amount of the supply is often exaggerated, and that strangers have often found that in reality subjects are at times not so easy to be had. Of late years, the number of dissecting students has increased very much; but a similar increase does not seem to have taken place in the number of subjects. On the contrary, in many cases, there has been a very marked scarcity. Speaking generally, and going upon the statements published for several years, it does not appear that each student can have more than one body for dissection during the whole period of the year in which dissection is allowed.

The hospitals furnish a certain number of subjects to the amphitheatres. These, however, are only such persons as are not claimed by any relations; if claimed, they must be given up. The bodies must not be removed till at least twenty-four hours after death has taken place; the distribution generally takes place early in the morning, at which time there is often a struggle among the students for the best. The dissecting-rooms of the School of Medicine are fitted up with every thing necessary for the complete and accurate study of the human frame, and the whole business of dissection is carried on with attention and decency, and without confusion. The students are superintended by a *chef des travaux anatomiques*, and by several *prosecteurs* and *aides d'anatomie*, who are chosen by *concours*. The first of these officers holds an im-

portant place; for *chef des travaux anatomiques* is ranked next to a professorship, to which it is almost always a step. Connected with the amphitheatre of the School of Medicine, there is now forming an anatomical museum, consisting of preparations of every part of the human body, prepared in every possible way. This museum has of late been making rapid progress, and now contains a great number of very beautiful specimens. There is also what may be termed a practical library, containing such works as students engaged in the study of practical anatomy would wish to consult.

The amphitheatre of La Pitié has been considerably enlarged of late years. It is plentifully supplied with water, a pipe being brought to each table. The business that goes on in it is superintended by a *chef des travaux anatomiques*, who is chosen by *concours*. The expense attending dissection here is very trifling. In the public room a very slight consideration is demanded; for a private apartment, of which there are several, a small sum is paid weekly or monthly; and there the study may be prosecuted with more quiet and with less interruption. The *chef*, besides superintending the dissections, generally himself gives a practical course, accompanied with operations on the subject; he frequently also gives a course on the theory of bandages, and the mode of application. In Paris dissections are not allowed to be carried on all the year. From October to April is the period fixed,

beyond which, on account of the heat, the dissecting-rooms are shut.

The number of persons who dissect in Paris is very considerable. At an average it may be stated at six or seven hundred. The number, however, is very variable; and in the year 1823, at the suppression of the School of Medicine, it had increased to nearly 1200. The object attended to by the superintendent is, as much as possible, to join beginners with such as are already considerably advanced in the study at the same table, in order that the one class, from their experience, may have it in their power to assist the other in the commencement of a study that requires such deep attention and close research.

The whole range of buildings connected with the amphitheatre forms what is termed the practical school, to which are attached so many *élèves* chosen by *concours*. They are forty in number, have free access at all times to all parts of the establishment, and, in case of a scarcity of subjects, always have the preference. When the situation of *prosecteur* or *aide d'anatomie*, which lasts for three years, happens to be vacant, the election is made by *concours* from among the *élèves* of the practical school.

The number of bodies employed for anatomical purposes in the city of Paris amounts on an average to between seven and eight hundred. In 1822 it amounted exactly to seven hundred and seventy,

of which three hundred and sixty-four were entire bodies, four hundred and six had been opened at the hospitals. Of these a certain proportion is sent to some of the scientific institutions of the capital; thus, in the year 1822,

23 were sent to the Garden of Plants,
15 to the College Royal de France,
3 to the Faculty of Sciences.

The total expense of the establishment for that year was 12,471 francs (£499.)

In the provincial towns of France the rooms for practical anatomy are connected with the great hospitals.

CHAPTER V.

POPULATION OF HOSPITALS.—IMPROVEMENTS IN THEIR CONSTRUCTION.—MORTALITY IN GENERAL.—COMPARISON OF MORTALITY IN THE HOSPITALS OF FRANCE AND IN THOSE OF OTHER COUNTRIES.

In considering the hospital-population of a country, several interesting subjects of argument present themselves, and not the least of these is, whether that population is a mark of prosperity in the state or the reverse? The question has frequently been agitated how far the establishment of hospitals is compatible with a wise plan of administration; but certainly whatever objections there may be, and there are many, to a too unlimited system of public charity, it cannot for a moment be denied, that, to a certain extent, hospitals are not only useful but necessary. The great object of the legislature, or of such as have the control and management of the institutions in favour of the poor, ought to be the attainment of a thorough acquaintance with the proportion that should subsist between the extent of the establishments formed, and the causes of indigence and misery that render these establish-

ments necessary. It is by no means sufficient to observe and calculate the proportion between the accommodation of the hospitals of a town and the mass of people who appear in a state of poverty. The inquiry must be carried deeper, and the calculation must be founded not upon the external evidences of poverty, but upon the extent and prevalence of those cases which must inevitably reduce some part of the population to a state that claims the assistance of the public. An outward appearance of poverty is fallacious in various points of view, and, unfortunately, it is too often encouraged by a want of due rigour and severity, which allows idleness and laziness to creep in. The effect of this is invariably to produce poverty; and in many countries, and many parts of a country, resources, which might be easily called up, and would introduce a considerable share of plenty and comfort, are allowed to remain unnoticed and unattended to. It is no paradox to say, that the appearance of poverty a country presents is by no means a mark of its real poverty. Countries in reality possessing the same resources frequently present a very different degree of prosperity; and, in endeavouring to regulate the extent of public charity that is called for, attention must be directed to the nature of these resources, and to the method of calling them into play.

Montesquieu, in the *Esprit des Lois*, says, that where a nation is poor,—"La pauvreté particulière est la pauvreté et la misère générale. Tous les

hôpitaux du monde ne sauraient guerir cette pauvreté particulière; au contraire, l'esprit de paresse qu'ils inspirent augmente la pauvreté générale, et par consequent la particulière."* He produces in favour of his opinion the two following instances:—When Henry VIII. of England denied the supremacy of the Pope, and declared himself the visible head of the Anglican church, he destroyed the numerous abbayes, hospitals, and houses of refuge, that existed everywhere throughout England, and in which so many persons were fed, lodged, and treated, when under the influence of malady. By this destruction, he laid the foundation of the future prosperity of his country. The resources of the nation, which were till then unattended to, and perhaps unknown, were thus forcibly called forth, and the inferior classes of society, no longer able to find the open and ready charity they had been accustomed to, found energies within them which till that time had lain dormant.

In opposition to this example, he quotes the hospital-system of Italy, in which, to use his own words,—" Les hôpitaux mettent tout le monde à son aise, excepté ceux qui ont de l'industrie, qui cultivent les arts et les terres, et qui font le commerce."†

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* Esprit des Lois, liv. xxii. ch. 29.

† In Rome, the charitable foundations are capable of containing 5000 paupers. Charity is open-handed, and physicians are paid to attend to the poor sick at their homes. Yet,

Effects of the worst kind are to be apprehended from an indiscriminate system of charity,—a system which makes it the right of every man to demand the relief which, in general, his own exertions ought to procure him. What the monkish institutions were in former days, an over-extension of establishments of public charity, and a morbid degree of charitable feeling among private individuals, will become in the present time. The effects of both will essentially be the same; and while the spirit that leads to the formation of too wide a system of charity is to be lauded, the consequences that arise from it cannot be too strongly deprecated. It may justly be said, with the illustrious author of the Spirit of the Laws,—"Malheur, malheur au pays qui a beaucoup d'hôpitaux!"—although, at the same time, in all respects, his opinions upon the subject of hospitals are not such as to claim the assent of the world in general.

Upon inquiring into the state of hospitals and hospital-establishments during the earlier periods of history, it will be found, that their existence has become necessary very much in proportion to the progress of civilization. This may at first sight appear a direct contradiction to the opinions advanced in the preceding pages; but a little considera-

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with all this, beggary is everywhere prevalent, and in every quarter of the city strangers are besieged by crowds of idle beggars, which would lead him to believe that nothing at all is done for them.—Vid. *Otto's Reise*, p. 146.

tion will make it evident that it is not so. These opinions are only opposed to the evil of carrying too far a system, which, to a certain extent, is not only allowable and useful, but absolutely necessary to the present state of society. In the history of Greece and of Rome, little traces can be observed of any establishments resembling the hospitals of the present day; but this apparent deficiency in the institutions of people whose undertakings were so great and so brilliant is easily accounted for. The adoption of slaves, and their connexion with private families, rendered the establishment of public charities almost unnecessary; for slaves, who might be supposed to come in place of the poorer classes of the community from which hospitals are filled, were so situated as never to be in want, their masters being called upon not merely to furnish the means of existence for them, but to comfort them in disease, and provide for them in old age. As slavery disappeared, the real condition of man was bettered; but for the same reason, public charity became more necessary as emancipation had absolved the rich from their former obligations, and the public was compelled now to do what individuals till then had done.

In those countries in which, even at present, slavery may be said to exist in much of its original form, the truth of what has just been said may be perceived. In Russia, for example, where the great mass of the population are tied down to the soil on which they were born, where they are altogether

subject to the proprietor of the ground, without the right, it may be said, of free will, there is little or no necessity for public hospitals. The people are indeed almost slaves; but, at the same time, their masters, as in the ancient states of Rome and Greece, feel themselves imperatively called upon to protect them from want, and support them under disease.

It must not then be accounted anomalous or contradictory, if, while it is argued, that much danger is to be apprehended from an over-abundance of charitable institutions, it should appear that it is precisely in those countries where civilization has reached its height, and liberty obtained a footing, that hospitals are most absolutely requisite. Montesquieu says,—" La richesse d'un état n'empêche pas que les hôpitaux n'y soient necessaires, parce que les richesses supposent beaucoup d'industrie; que dans un si grand nombre de branches de commerce, il n'est pas possible qu'il n'y en ait toujours quelq'une qui souffre."—To this opinion it may be added, that in the present condition of society, when every man is thrown more or less upon his own resources, and must trust to his own individual exertions,—when every man, though so far connected with others for the purpose of society, yet enjoys freedom and independence, and has no claim upon his neighbour, and farther, when mercantile speculation forms so much of the every-day business of life, there must always be a certain proportion of persons reduced, by the force of circumstances and the chance of fortune, to require not only the sym-

pathy but the assistance of the public. But as the human mind is too prone to abuse the advantages presented to it, it is necessary that the attention should be particularly directed to the probable proportion of such persons to the great mass of the population. To extend the number of hospitals without limitation would be highly prejudicial. A medium does exist, and if it be possible for a country or a city to err in limiting too much its means of charity, it is as much and much more liable to err in the opposite way.

The most effectual plan of avoiding this danger will be to limit the extent of assistance granted, to calculate the proportion of poor that really and inevitably, in the present state of society, require relief, and regulate the amount of charity accordingly. Limiting, in other words, the hospitals to a certain number of beds, and, by means of a commission or Central Bureau, as in Paris, paying a rigorous degree of attention to the right or title of any one claiming to be admitted. Enough has already been said in a former part of the work upon the advantages of a Central Bureau, and, although many persons have objections to it, and, even in France, wish its suppression, it must still be accounted a most excellent establishment, upon the principles above stated, that it throws in the way as many formalities as are compatible with humanity in the distribution of charity. While it has diminished the number of hospital-inmates, and classified them properly according to age and disease, every degree of

attention has been paid to the increase of comforts and conveniences in the hospitals. The miserable state of these previous to and at the time of Tenon did not prevent the number that sought refuge in them from being equal, and, indeed, greater than at present, when they have become models of regularity, and are furnished with every comfort.

It will be only necessary to consult the admirable memoirs of that author, and compare the account given in them with the reports now published by the administration, to see in how very different a state the hospitals of the capital now are from what they were once, and at no very distant period. The mortality in the Hôtel Dieu is at present not more than one in seven; whereas, by Tenon's memoirs, it would appear to have been nearer one in four,—a difference attributable to the excellent administration that prevails; and certainly, if nearly double the number of persons are restored to health without increasing the demands for hospital-assistance, the improvement is to be commended and encouraged.

The contrast between the comfort a patient receives in an hospital, and what he has been accustomed to at home, ought on no account to be too great, as it may produce discontent. In children's hospitals this is particularly to be avoided; yet in these there is often a great deal too much attention paid to all the wants and conveniences of the inmates. They are accustomed to comforts, and brought up with ideas that render them in some

degree unfit to put up with the indifferent habitations and inferior treatment they often encounter, when, after leaving the hospital, they enter upon the business of life. Benevolence here often does harm; and the persons who wish to see orphan-hospitals in the highest condition of worldly comfort, forget what is to be the future life of their inmates.*

In France each hospital has a certain number of beds, and this number cannot be increased except with the sanction of the administrative authorities. To determine the necessity of such a measure, tables showing the state of the hospital-population must be regularly drawn up. To the minis-

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* From the account given by Dr Granville of the state of the hospital-establishments in St Petersburgh, many of them seem to be fitted up in a very magnificent style. No bad effects as yet, however, appear to have arisen from this, though it is to be dreaded that in the course of time it may become detrimental.

The various accounts of all that has been done in Russia to ameliorate the lot of the unfortunate inspire the deepest admiration for the illustrious personages who have thus done honour to the high rank in which Providence has placed them. The name of the Empress Mother is hailed with blessings throughout the whole of that vast empire. Hers was not the charity of ostentation. She was not merely satisfied with giving, but, with the most indefatigable zeal, saw that what she did give was properly employed. The world nowhere presented a more exalted example of practical charity than this illustrious individual, who, in all her efforts for the good of humanity, was so nobly seconded by her imperial family. Her recent loss will be long severely felt in Russia by all ranks of people.

ter of the interior, also, the prefects of the different departments are enjoined to send, during the first quarter of every year, a complete statement of the movement of the population, as it is termed (*mouvement de population*), of all the establishments in their jurisdiction. Before mentioning the present population of the Parisian hospitals, it will be proper to give some idea of the general population of the city, as well at the present time as at the time when Tenon published his valuable memoirs, in order that the proportion subsisting between them may be more easily approximated. Tenon, in the introduction to his valuable work, gives the following statement for the year 1788:—"Paris renferme quarante huit hôpitaux, ou Maisons de Charité:—vingt-deux de malades; six de malades et de valides; vingt reservés à des valides. On prend soin journellement à Paris de 6236 malades, 14,105 valides, et de 15,000 enfans trouvés. Les hôpitaux fournissent à une assistance publique, qui par jour s'étend à 35,341 individus; les personnes secourues, prises en général, sont à la population de Paris comme 1 est à $18\frac{2}{3}$; les malades et valides comme 1 à $33\frac{1}{2}$; les seuls malades comme 1 à $105\frac{4}{7}$." The population of Paris is in this statement rated at 660,000, very nearly what it is made by Necker in his book of finance; but it is doubtful if it could be so great; for, according to the census made at the beginning of the Revolution, by order of the Constituent Assembly, it was found not to exceed 550,800 souls. Many persons, perhaps, will not wonder that

there should be a diminution at such an epoch in the population of a city that was a prey to horror and anarchy; but a decrease of 110,000 souls in the space of a year or two cannot altogether be thus accounted for.

The population, however, since then, has increased rapidly. By a census taken in 1817, it was found to have risen to 713,966; since which it has farther been increasing, till at the present day it may be stated at considerably above 800,000.* At present the civil hospitals of Paris cannot admit more than 15,000 inmates at a time, and the number is seldom complete.

According to Lachaise's medical topography of Paris, the increase of population since the commencement of the Revolution up to the year 1817 was no less than 163,000, which, going upon the calculation of Tenon, ought to have made an addition to the number of sick and destitute hospital-inmates of about 5000. Since 1817, a similar increase should have taken place; but there has been no addition to this extent. The increase of wealth and comfort in Paris may in some measure account for this, but cannot altogether do so; for the increase of popula-

* From the census taken in 1827, and which is inserted in the *Bulletin des Lois*, the population of Paris would appear to be as great as 890,431. It is difficult to conceive the possibility of an increase of 176,465 souls in the short space of 10 years; yet the last census is official, and was said to have been taken with great attention to accuracy.

tion has not been among the class of persons least exposed to those hazards of fortune that involve the necessity of frequently claiming the assistance of the public. On the contrary, the state of blockade in which France may be said to have been for many years, from the destruction of her maritime resources, rendered it necessary that the capital should become a sort of depôt of trade and manufacture. Its industry, therefore, rapidly increased, and was the cause of the increased population. Artizans and labourers flocked to it from all quarters; but when peace was restored, and trade once more flowed into its regular channels, this very description of population was the most likely to suffer to the greatest extent, and to swell the lists of hospital-patients.

To what then is it owing, that, notwithstanding this, the population of the Parisian hospitals has not only remained stationary, but has even decreased. Principally certainly to the manner in which they are administered, and to the degree of strictness, and even of severity, introduced into their management, and to which the establishment of a Bureau Central has so powerfully contributed.

In calculating the number of persons accommodated in the charitable establishments of some of the other towns of France, the proportion is found to be very nearly the same as in the capital; but, as the restrictions upon admission are not so much attended to, the population in some of them has increased of late years. This, however, has not been frequently the case. In Strasbourg the population,

exclusive of the garrison, may be stated at 54,000, of which about 1500 sick, destitute, infirm, and orphans, may be said to inhabit the public hospitals, independent of foundlings, being a proportion of 1 to 36.*

While full credit is to be given to the hospital-administration, at the same time it must be allowed, that the dispensaries, bureaux of charity, and other charitable institutions, have had a great effect in preventing the increase of persons who seek for refuge in an hospital. Thousands of persons who are now treated in these charities would, without the existence of the Bureau Central, have been admitted into the hospitals. From whatever cause the hospital-population has diminished, whether from an increase of industry and pride in the people, or from the exertions of societies, who give them partial aid at their own homes, and thus prevent the bonds of social attachment from being broken, it is evident that the general good has been promoted.

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* When the magnificent hospital of Vienna was constructed, it was imagined, that a population of 200,000 persons would require 1600 beds for indigent sick. Stoll supposed that 400 beds would be necessary for fevers, 600 for chronic maladies, and the remainder for lying-in females and children.* The proportion of supposed sick to the total inhabitants then was taken 1 : 125. In Paris the number of sick beds is about 5000, which, stating the population at 800,000, would give a proportion of 1 : 160.

* Vid. *M. Friedlander sur les Pauvres d'Allemagne*, p. 18.

The following table contains the number of beds in each hospital and hospice of Paris, together with the actual number of inmates and *movement* of their population, and from it it will be seen in what manner that population is distributed :—

HOSPITALS.

	Number of Beds.	Occupied on 1st January.	Received through the year.
Hôtel Dieu, . .	1000	840	11,663
La Pitié, . .	600	447	4765
La Charité, . . .	323	280	3520
St Antoine, . .	262	212	2752
Necker, . .	120	107	1183
Cochin, . .	117	84	1441
Beaujon, . .	160	126	1689
St Louis, . .	700	756	4818
Vénériens, .	612	427	2886
Enfans Malades, .	460	407	3142
Accouchement,* .	280	184	5030
Maison Royale de Santé,	176	100	1744
Maison de Santé des Vénériens, . .	63	30	310
Totals, .	4973	4001	44,943†

* The Maison d'Accouchement contains 433 beds ; but 150 of these, being for the *Elèves Sages-femmes*, are not introduced into the table.

† The Foundling Hospital has not been introduced into the table, as it scarcely can be said to belong to the capital alone, and, at any rate, as the children are almost all sent off immediately to the country ; it will be afterwards more particularly noticed.

HOSPICES.

	Number of Beds.	Occupied on 1st January.	Received through the year.
Salpétrière, .	5400	5092	1029
Bicêtre, . .	3127	3089	732
H. des Incurables Hommes, .	461	444	101
H. des Incurables Femmes, . .	522	430	68
H. des Ménages, .	682	674	85
H. des Orphelins,	760	336	643
H. de la Rochefoucauld, .	150	149	35
Institution de St Perine, . .	175	164	37
Totals,	11,277	10,478	2730
To which, adding the totals of hospitals,	4973	4001	44,943
The grand totals are,	16,250	14,479	47,673

In all these hospitals the accommodation is good, and the population by no means crowded. Instances no longer occur, as in the time of Tenon, of two, three, four, or even more persons sleeping in the same bed. This state of things, so long a disgrace to the Hôtel Dieu in particular, has been banished from the hospitals not only of Paris, but of all France. The beds in general are now of iron; and, where the want of funds has not yet allowed this improvement, the administration is proceeding gradually to bring it about. The general

supply of water, which at one time was very insufficient, is now much increased, and reservoirs have been formed in many situations. Baths of every description have been constructed; and heated air has been introduced into the cells of the lunatic inhabitants of the Bicêtre and other establishments, the inmates of which had hitherto been exposed to all the vicissitudes of the atmosphere. But, though improvements have been made in all, it is in the Hôtel Dieu in particular that they are to be observed. The crowded and wretched buildings that surrounded it have, as far as it was possible, been cleared away; the windows have been lowered to the level of the floor; lying-in women, lunatics, and surgical patients, no longer are placed almost in contact with one another. To use the expressions of its celebrated surgeon, those adynamic fevers are no more observed, which are developed in such numbers by a concentrated atmosphere, loaded with putrid miasma. Hospital-gangrene never occurs; and M. Dupuytren has frequently been forced to terminate his courses of clinical surgery without having it in his power to show a single example of it to his students. The operation of trepan now succeeds like other surgical operations, and only fails for reasons analogous to those which produce failure in them.

It ought, however, to be remarked, that the free and constant access of fresh air to every part of the establishment has, it would seem, had the effect of increasing sensibly the tendency to inflammatory

complaints. M. Dupuytren says, that, if putrid and malignant fevers, mortification, and gangrene, can no longer be observed, pneumony, pleurisy, and peritonitis, have increased, and that in the surgical wards the causes of death are now almost invariably inflammatory. What has been gained in one way, therefore, has in some degree been lost in another; but, at the same time, in avoiding one extreme, equal mischiefs have not been incurred on the other; and, if inflammations are more common than formerly, they are not now so fatal as the opposite causes of mortality which preceded them.

A constant renewal of air must be procured in an hospital; and this is only to be obtained by a proper construction of the wards and the windows, not by the formation of ventilators, which are but a confession of the bad state of the hospital with respect to free air. It may well be exclaimed, with the author of the article *Hôpital*, in the *Dictionnaire des Sciences Médicales*, when speaking of the Military Hospital of Vienna, all the wards of which are furnished with ventilators,—*Malheur aux hôpitaux ou ils sont nécessaires!** Since the

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* In the Hospital of Munich the cold air is let in from above by means of pipes, while the corrupted air of the interior is allowed egress by other pipes placed near the fire, so as to be heated. In the Hospital of Padua the main windows are placed very high; but, to avoid any inconvenience arising from bad air, there are small air-windows, if they may be so named, on a level with the floor between the beds.

time of Tenon much attention has been paid to the proportion of air which, by calculation of the size of the ward, belongs to each individual in it, or, in other words, to the number of beds in the different wards. The *minimum* of air, it is said, ought to be between six and seven cubic fathoms, and the number of beds as much as possible regulated according to the combined dimensions of length, breadth, and height. Thus, according to Tenon, in a ward thirteen fathoms long, four broad, and fourteen feet high, there ought never to be more than eighteen beds,—a very different proportion from what subsisted in the Hôtel Dieu when he wrote his work; at which time, in many of the wards, the inmates had not more than two and in some of them one fathom of air. In avoiding the chance of too small a supply of air, however, it is necessary to avoid falling into an opposite error, and by a too great size of ward rendering it impossible to regulate the temperature as it ought to be. The French hospitals are not all free from this fault; as an instance of which the great hospital of the Hôtel Dieu of Lyons will suffice. This, perhaps the most magnificent building of its kind in France, or perhaps in Europe, and with much to praise in it, is still far from being laid out in a proper manner. Its interior forms a vast extent of ward in the form of a cross, each part terminating in the dome. The length of the whole is between 500 and 600 feet, with three ranges of beds, and the dome is 36 feet

in diameter, and of very considerable height.* One ward, therefore, contains several hundred beds, while the open dome produces a draught of air and a degree of cold that no stoves can counteract; during the winter months, therefore, it actually happens that many persons die from absolute cold.

The hospitals of France are still very generally supplied with bed-curtains. Among the many improvements of late years, it is much to be regretted that this circumstance had not been more attended to; for it cannot be doubted that, in a crowded hospital-establishment, curtains serve no purpose but that of concentrating contagion, and forming a mephitic and putrid atmosphere around the patient. Such is the common opinion of medical men, and yet Roux, a man who most deservedly stands high in the opinion of the world, has the following passage in his *Relation of a Voyage made to England in* 1815:—"The wards of the London hospitals do not present the imposing appearance of those of Paris. This arises from the lowness of the beds, the

* In Dr Granville's interesting work it is stated, that the wards in the Hospital of Obouchoff, in St Petersburgh, are 560 feet long and 40 broad. This great size he very properly disapproves of. This fault, however, is not to be observed in all the hospitals of that capital; thus, in the Hôpital Imperial des Pauvres Malades, (*Bolnitza dlia Bednikh,*) founded in 1803 by the late Emperor Alexander, the sick-wards are very small, containing only from twelve to fifteen beds, and having no less than twenty-one feet of elevation.

scantiness of their furniture, and the want of curtains, or at least their small size, which renders them but a sorry decoration. In Paris, on the contrary, the beds are large, well supplied with furniture, and surrounded with curtains, which serve not only as an ornament to the wards, but to defend the sick person from the impressions of cold, to procure him during the day a proper degree of obscurity, that he may enjoy the sleep he stands so much in need of, to give him a certain extent of isolation and retirement, and, in fine, to remove from his observation the afflicting spectacle of persons in the struggles of dissolution." M. Roux in this passage certainly points out all the advantages of curtains; but there are few persons who would not deem these advantages most completely counteracted by the disadvantages that attend them.* For individuals in particular circumstances or states of disease, humanity, perhaps, would recommend curtains; but in an hospital, general advantage is to be consulted more than individual; and, indeed, it is evident that the general must at the same time be the individual good. Pringle says, it is not possible to conceive in the nature of things a contradiction more strik-

* The following passage from Foderé expresses a very different opinion from M. Roux:—" Ces lits seraient en fer et sans rideaux, pour éviter les insectes et empêcher que les émanations du corps du malade ne s'arrêtent autour de lui, et ne deviennent, par le moyen des rideaux, un foyer de contagion." —*Med. Leg.* v. vi. p. 539.

ing than a malady produced by a stay in an hospital. The existence of curtains is one of the causes that is most likely to produce this contradiction so energetically expressed; and therefore it must be allowed, that the ill-furnished and sometimes shabby-looking beds of the English hospitals, without any or with but the semblance of curtains, are much more to be praised than the beds of the French hospitals, furnished in the manner described by M. Roux.

Most of the French hospitals have wards for convalescents, to which the inmates are removed when in a fair way of recovery from illness. This is a good system; but, at the same time, it is to be regretted that it is not extended farther, and that separate buildings are not constructed for convalescents at some little distance from the main building. This plan appears to be adopted nowhere but in Vienna. In the Faubourg of Leopoldstadt, in that city, there is an hospital with 150 beds, which has annexed to it an establishment, in which persons who are just recovering from disease are received till their full health is restored. It was founded by the Empress Maria Theresa in the Haupt Strasse, upon the recommendation of Van Swieten, to prevent, as the latter expressed it, those relapses that are so apt to occur in a crowded hospital, and to hasten cures that had begun to act favourably upon the system. Though on a small scale, it is an institution worthy of its illustrious founders, and deserving of imitation and consideration by all who

are labouring for the advantage of their fellow-creatures when afflicted with disease.

The hospitals of Paris are divided into general and special; the former for ordinary, the latter for special diseases. The admission into both is attended with some formalities. In treating of the *Bureau Central* it has been already mentioned, that an applicant for hospital-assistance must be furnished with a certificate, showing him to be entitled to receive it. When supplied with this he is received, and immediately upon his reception is sent to a particular apartment to be examined by the *officier de santé* who may chance to be on duty. After his examination he receives a billet, which he takes with him to another apartment, named the *Bureau d'Enregistrement*, where his name, surname, age, place of birth, and profession, are inscribed on a register. He is next conducted to the clothing-room (*depôt de vêtemens*), where he throws off his own clothes and receives those of the house. Whatever he has cast off, as well as all other property he may have with him, are placed under the charge of the director of the *depôt*, and an inventory of them is made up on a slip of paper, which is attached to his arm by a stripe of parchment. In this depôt also there are baths, in which the *agent de surveillance* is directed to see that all whose malady is not likely to be aggravated by it are regularly bathed.

Being clothed in the uniform of the house, the patient is removed to the ward destined for new-

comers; there he must remain till further examined by the head medical officers, who finally decide to what part of the hospital he is to be sent.

Regulations analogous to those just mentioned exist in all the hospital-establishments of France, and it may be said of continental Europe; and they are very necessary to their prosperity and welfare. In the great hospital of Milan, for example, every person that enters must, before taking his bed, be examined in an apartment close to the main entrance. An inventory is there taken of all the property he has with him, and this is made out upon a card, which is placed at his bed-head. The card also contains the various circumstances connected with his admission and stay in the hospital.*

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* The following model of it may not be uninteresting:—

N. MILANO. 182

Entrata.
D'anni.
Conjugata con.
Avente figli.
Nata in.
Domiciliata in.
Parrochia di.
Contrada.
Figlia di.
e di.
Professione.
Accettata per.

SALA.

No.

Effetti consegnate.
Veste di.
Socca di.
Altra socca di.
Scossale di.
Guib°. di.
Busto di.

The length of stay of patients in an hospital, of course, cannot well be calculated *à priori*; but, at the same time, in France there are certain regulations to limit the extent of it. By an *arreté* of the 30th July, 1806, no one can remain longer than three months in a regular sick-hospital at a time; beyond this period, unless the patient be in such a state as to render his removal impossible, he must apply to the *Bureau Central* for leave to enter into some other charitable establishment.

By a subsequent *arreté* of 1818, no one can remain above sixty days in an hospital, except with the authorisation of the head-physician. In special hospitals these regulations vary in some points; for the inmates may remain in them longer than three months: in order to do so, however, they must have their certificates renewed by the Central Bureau. That these regulations may be all properly attended to, a member of the administrative commission, accompanied by a physician of the Central

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Bianchetta.
Fazzoletti.
Calze.
Scarpe.
Camicia.
In Denaro.

Vicende. Trasportata il giorno. Partita il giorno. Morta il giorno. alle ore.

Guarita da.

al N.

Bureau, must make regular monthly visits to the different hospitals. It has been already mentioned, that there are separate wards for convalescents. The stay in them is likewise limited to a certain time, which in most of them is ten days ; of course, in particular cases, there are exceptions to this limitation. The average length of stay in the hospitals of Paris, in the year 1821, was thirty-seven days; in 1822 it was only thirty-five.

When any person dies in an hospital, the house-authorities are required to give notice to the civil officer within twenty-four hours. According to the civil code of the country, he must make out the register of decease, and send it to the last domicile of the deceased, in order that it may be inscribed in the register of the *commune*. There are various regulations connected with this formality, which more particularly belong to the medical police of France; in the meantime the consideration of mortality in relation to hospitals is the object of attention.*

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* In the hospitals and hospices of Paris the bodies are kept for the space of twenty-four hours in the chapel. If reclaimed by parents or friends, they are given up to them. In cases where violent death is suspected, the *agent de surveillance* must give immediate information to the officer of police, according to the following regulation of the *Code Civil*:— " Lorsqu'il y aura des signes ou indices de mort violente, ou d'autres circonstances qui donneront lieu de la soupçonner, on ne pourra faire l'inhumation qu'après qu'un officier de police, assisté d'un docteur en médécine ou en chirurgie, aura

During the last century, the necessity of investigating the laws that regulate the course of population and mortality, and settling them on a proper basis, had been found so urgent, and the study so

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dressé procès-verbal de l'état du cadavre et des circonstances y relatives, ainsi que des renseignemens qu'il aura pu recueillir sur les prénoms, nom, âge, profession, lieu de naissance, et domicile de la personne décédée."

There having been a good deal of negligence on this point, the prefect of police issued an *ordonnance* on the 17th Ventose, ix. (8th March, 1801) founded upon the edict of December, 1666, and on the *ordonnance* of police of the 4th November, 1788; which, among others, contained the following articles:—

" Art. 1.—Tous les officiers de santé de Paris et ceux des communes rurales du département de la Seine, et de celles de Sèvres, Saint Cloud, et Meudon, qui auront administré des secours à des blessés, seront tenus d'en faire sur-le-champ la déclaration aux commissaires de police, ou aux maires et adjoints *extra muros*, sous peine de 300 francs d'amende.

" Art. 3.—Les officiers de santé en chef des hospices de Paris feront la même déclaration pour tous les individus blessés qui auront été admis dans les hospices, sous peine de 200 francs d'amende."

By an *arreté* of the minister of the interior, dated December, 1821, the physicians of each municipal arrondissement of Paris, charged with certifying deaths, are required to make their declarations under the following heads:—

1. Name and surname of the deceased.
2. Sex.
3. State with respect to marriage.
4. Age.
5. Profession.

intimately connected with the social state of man, and the improvement of his condition, that it became an object of deep inquiry to all who interested themselves in the good of humanity. The mathe-

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6. Date of death (month, day, and hour).
7. Quarter, street, and number of place of residence.
8. Storey, and situation of the house.
9. Nature of the disease, and, if necessary, motives for rendering it proper to open the body.
10. Antecedent causes, and subsequent complications.
11. Length of the disease.
12. Names of the persons who may have furnished the necessary medicines.
13. Names of the persons who may have attended on the deceased.

In the hospitals, and in all public establishments, the superiors, director, administrators, or other authorities, must, by article 80 of the *Code Civil,* inform the civil officer of the decease of any inmate within the twenty-four hours; for the register of decease kept in these different establishments is only a form of internal police necessary to their own order; it is not a civil act, and forms no legal proof of decease. The minister, in his circular of 1824, points out particularly the necessity of being minute on this head, not only for the sake of private individuals, but for the general order and surety of the state.

When medical men are called to give evidence or to examine bodies in criminal cases, they are paid according to a tariff, established by a decree of the 18th June, 1811, at the following rate:—

Each physician or surgeon, for each visit and report,

In Paris, 6 francs; in towns having 40,000 inhabitants and above, 5 francs; in other towns and communes, 3 francs.

matician and naturalist, the physician and political economist, each laboured to establish those laws upon sure and unerring foundations; and the names of Condorcet and Saint Maur, of Buffon, Necker, de la Place, Duvillard, and Chaptal, are to be cited as those in France whose efforts have tended in the most remarkable degree to bring about this desirable object. The great variations that the population of a country suffers from the many different agents which are constantly exerting their influence on it, render the ascertainment of a true account of its state a matter of extreme difficulty. Before any thing like a just and useful statement can be obtained, it is necessary to be acquainted thoroughly with the limits which these variations have; and the only means of obtaining this knowledge satisfactorily is by accurate observations carried on through a long series of years; by remarking close-

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For opening bodies, and other difficult operations, they receive in addition,

In Paris, 9 francs; in towns with 40,000 inhabitants or above, 7 francs; in other towns and communes, 5 francs.

Midwives receive for each visit,

In Paris, 3 francs; in other towns and communes, 2 francs. If the visit be farther than 2 kilomètres (1 mile, 1 furlong, 206 yards) from their residence, the physicians and surgeons are paid at the rate of 2 francs 50, and the midwives of 1 franc 50 per myriamètre (6 m. 1 furl. 156 yards): a small addition is made during the months of November, December, January, and February.

ly every variation that may occur during the period these observations are continued, and by carefully noting every phenomenon that may depend upon peculiar circumstances which cannot be depended on as occurring in the usual course of things.

In considering the chances of life in any country, it must not be imagined that the laws applicable to the country at large are equally applicable to the great towns situated in it. In the latter, the causes that tend to curtail the term of existence are so numerous, compared to what they are in the former, that a widely different calculation is requisite to determine the laws of mortality that there exist. Accordingly, it is found that in those countries which have the greatest number of large towns, the average mortality, *cæteris paribus*, is the greatest; and hence it follows, that the healthiness of a country ought not to be judged of from a mere inspection of the general tables of its mortality; as the increase which may be there observable may be the effect of moral causes conjoined with the ordinary influence of physical ones upon the system.

Independent of moral influence, the agent that acts most directly on human life is the climate; using that term not in the ordinary acceptation of it, by which it is applied solely to the vicissitudes of the atmosphere, but as it is employed by Hippocrates, and now by almost all naturalists. The climate of a place is, to use the expression of M. Cabanis, *the ensemble of the physical circumstances*

attached to it and connected with it. The changes of the atmosphere from heat to cold, from wet to dry, certainly form one of its most marked features, but is no less characterized by the nature of the soil in a physical point of view, by the existence, for instance, of mountain-chains, by the neighbourhood of the sea, of great rivers, and by other causes which it will be unnecessary here to enumerate; but the influence of which is to be observed in their effects upon animal and vegetable life. It is a matter much to be regretted that medical topographies are so scarce; for though the few that do exist give a good account of the medical constitution of certain places with reference to climate and other influencing causes, yet their number is very limited; and, without a wider and more complete comparison of different cities, placed under similar circumstances in other respects, it is impossible to judge correctly of the effects attributable to these causes in the ratio of mortality and prevalence of disease.

Generally speaking, the number of deaths in Paris, as in all large towns, is greatest in winter and spring; but as there may exist many causes to influence this number independent of state of climate, it comes to be a matter of some difficulty to judge accurately of the proportional healthiness or unhealthiness of different periods of the year. It is to be observed, that the mortality of one period of the year is by no means the invariable expression of the unhealthiness of that period, but rather of the preceding; "for in comprehending under the name of

medical constitution, the sum of those causes, whatever they may be, that generally influence the production of diseases, their progress or termination, it must be admitted, that the mortality that takes place in one season is most frequently the general expression of the medical constitution of the preceding season; for if sudden deaths, under which term all deaths by accident are included, be excepted, the diseases to which the greater number of persons fall victims have had their origin, if not in the whole, at least in the two last months of the preceding season."* It is equally true, that in considering the mortality in the different quarters of any town, and the proportion of deaths due to the influence of climate in each, it must be kept in remembrance, that the sum they present can by no means be deemed an expression of their relative salubrity dependent upon climate and position. For as it is well known that, independent of topographical situation, there is invariably a much greater mortality in the poor classes than in the rich,† it is

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* Vid. *Topographie Médicale de Paris*, &c. par Lachaise, p. 323.

† M. le Dr Villermé, in a very interesting paper read to the Academy of Sciences, has some very striking remarks on the effect of poverty in increasing mortality. Taking the two *arrondissements* of Paris (the 1st and 12th), which contain, the one the greatest number of rich inhabitants, and the other the greatest number of poor, he found the number of deaths in the former 1 in 50 annually, and in the latter 1 in 24. Similar results he found upon instituting a comparison between

evident that it must be exceedingly difficult to ascertain the exact proportional effects due to the respective agency of climate and of poverty in these quarters. It follows, therefore, that the surplus mortality, which, in the best-built parts of a town, would be referred to climate, may, in the worst-built parts, depend as much upon poverty and wretchedness. But in whatever way the influence of climate upon health be considered, there must always exist a considerable degree of uncertainty in estimating them; for if at one time the excess of mortality

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the rich and the poor departments of France. The mortality in the former was 1 in 46, and in the latter 1 in 33.

In the *Journal des Debats* of the 19th February, 1826, the same gentleman makes some curious remarks upon the relations existing between the mortality and the division of landed property in France. His calculations are established on the official report of 1817, on the operations of the *Cadastre*. This report indicates, by approximation, the number of landed proprietors for a *sixth* of the whole superficies of the kingdom, and, mean term, for the same fraction in each department. He found, that in the departments in which the mortality is only 1 in 46, the average proportion of land is for each proprietor, 3 *hectares* 98 *ares* (6.73300 Imp. acres), while it is 7 *hectares* (15.46700 Imp. acres), in those departments in which the mortality is 1 in 33.

This difference is not determined by the density of the population; for, if the surface of the land which answers to each individual be compared with what belongs to each proprietor, and if the first quantity be considered as unity, the conclusion is, that the second is much greater in the departments in which the mortality likewise is great. This is proved by the following tables:—

agrees well with the climate, at another time it does not; and it not unfrequently happens, that numer-

DEPARTMENTS IN WHICH THE AVERAGE MORTALITY IS 1 IN 46.

DEPARTMENTS.	Proportion of land for each individual (Hectares).	Proportion of land for each landed proprietor (Hectares).	Proportion of the two quantities to each other; the former being 100.
Aube,	2 63	3 24	123
Calvados,	1 13	2 39	211
Côte d'Or,	2 43	5 92	244
Eure,	1 40	3 55	254
Eure et Loire,	2 28	3 87	174
Gironde,	1 96	4 67	238
Indre et Loire,	2 28	5 6	222
Loire Inférieure,	1 41	2 52	179
Lot et Garonne,	1 45	3 80	262
Maine et Loire,	1 63	2 47	151
Manche,	1 1	2 40	219
Marne (Haute),	2 69	4 3	150
Orne,	1 33	4 12	310
Pas de Calais,	1 7	1 98	185
Sarthe,	1 49	6 14	412
Sèvres (Deux),	2 9	6 67	319
	1 81	3 98	229

DEPARTMENTS IN WHICH THE MORTALITY IS 1 IN 33.

Alpes (Hautes),	4 49	11 67	260
Correze,	2 10	5 83	277
Côtes du Nord,	1 35	4 45	330
Finisterre,	1 44	8 96	622
Ile-et-Vilaine,	1 19	2 79	234
Indre,	3 5	5 6	166
Landes,	3 55	9 78	276
Loire,	1 35	9 3	669
Loire (Haute),	1 79	2 95	165
Lozère,	3 80	11 3	290
Morbihan,	1 71	3 91	229
Nièvre,	2 57	5 8	197
Vienne (Haute,	2 10	10 51	500
	2 35	7 0	324

ous deaths occur at particular seasons from prevailing diseases, when the state of the atmosphere is most favourable, according to common idea, to health. The consequence is a difficulty in determining whether the increase of mortality be connected with and result from the state of the atmosphere, or if it be merely an accidental coincidence.

The Council of Salubrity in Paris, aware of the imperfect manner in which the tables of mortality had long been kept, have endeavoured, as far as lay in their power, to impart to them that degree of precision and development which is indispensable before an accurate judgment can be formed of the state of public health. They remark, that the announcement of the population of Paris is seldom exact; that the maladies are specified in too general a manner; and that, in fine, it is impossible, although the utility of the tables must be allowed in some points, to obtain from them those practical results they had a right to expect. The connexions of particular diseases with particular professions

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From these tables it may be concluded that the division of real property acts most beneficially on the duration of life amongst masses of inhabitants; and this conclusion is confirmed by referring to the time of Necker. Undoubtedly, at present, the division of land is much greater than it then was; but by the census of 1820 the annual mortality in the whole kingdom was 1 in 39; by that of Necker it was from 1771 to 1781, 1 in 29$\frac{8}{9}$. This difference, which cannot be ascribed to the influence of vaccination alone, is conclusive of the truth of what has been advanced.

and localities are not indicated: it is, however, of the most essential consequence to point these out; for if, by experience, it were ascertained that certain maladies are invariably connected with certain professions or certain localities, it would follow that such maladies were occasioned by one of these causes, and the administration would then have it in their power to seek for the means of remedying or at least of palliating the evil.

In consequence of these recommendations, the tables of mortality in the hospitals of Paris are now made out with very considerable care, being compiled from observations of every case taken by the *élèves*. A proper nosographical system being accounted absolutely necessary to their accuracy, the Royal Council, in 1822, adopted a new and complete arrangement proposed to them by the prefect of police.*

In the reports of the Dispensary of Lyons are to be found some very interesting tables, which might

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* "L'intention de l'administration, en adoptant le nouveau tableau nosographique, dont j'ai eu l'honneur de vous addresser des exemplaires vers la fin du mois dernier, a été de perfectionner les tableaux de mortalité, et de réunir, dans un ordre plus méthodique, des renseignemens précieux pour l'art médical et l'hygiene publique; un pareil résultat ne peut être atteint qu'autant que les personnes chargées de vérifier les décès désignent avec précision les numéros de la classe et de l'ordre de chaque maladie, et l'indiquent avec la dénomination technique qui lui est donnée sur la nouvelle nosographie."

serve as models to other societies, and which point out, as far as is possible, the principal circumstances that influence the progress and termination of disease. They are termed synoptic and statistical tables, and are constructed so as to show the malady, sex, and age of the patient, number of sick, and the mortality, professions, and places of abode, all with reference to one another. In particular, they point out the proportion of mortality according to age, profession, and habitation. A series of such tables, made with accuracy, in different parts of a country, would throw much light upon the origin of diseases; but, of course, where the results must be so general, a few would not suffice; the tables would require not only to be exceedingly correct, but very numerous.

The population of Paris, as already mentioned, has increased very much during the last thirty years, and may now be stated, including the garrison, between 800,000 and 900,000.*

The report of the Council of Salubrity for 1819 states the mortality of that year at 22,137:

Of these died in their own houses, .	14,877	22,137
Died in hospitals, . .	7310	

being 245 less than in the preceding year. The births are stated at 23,263, of which are,

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* Vid. last census for 1827, inserted in the *Bulletin des Lois.*

Males, . . .	11,871	23,263
Females, . . .	11,392	

so that the births exceed the deaths by 1126.

In 1820 the number of deaths was 22,957, exceeding those of 1819 by 857. The births were 24,495, being an excess over the deaths of 1538. In 1825 the number of deaths was 26,893; that of births 29,253. The following is a statement of the population of Paris for the year 1825, furnished to the *Bureau de Longitude* by the prefect of the department:—

BIRTHS.

At home.	In marriage,	Boys, 9610 / Girls, 9181	18,791
	Illegitimate,	Boys, 2599 / Girls, 2502	5101
In hospitals.	In marriage,	Boys, 229 / Girls, 194	423
	Illegitimate,	Boys, 2551 / Girls, 2387	4938
	Total, . .		29,253

Births,	Boys, .	14,989
	Girls, .	14,264
		29,253

ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN.

Acknowledged, comprised above,	Male, 1119 / Female, 1083	2202
Abandoned, . .	Male, 4031 / Female, 3806	7837
Total, . .		10,039

MARRIAGES.

Bachelors and spinsters,	6606	7959
Bachelors and widows,	377	
Widowers and spinsters,	769	
Widowers and widows,	207	

STILL-BORN CHILDREN.

Male,	846	1521
Female,	675	

DEATHS.

At home,	Males,	8039	16,964
	Females,	8925	
In the civil hospitals,	Males,	4592	9062
	Females,	4470	
In the military hospitals,	Males,	541	542
	Females,	1	
In prisons,	Males,	16	57
	Females,	41	
At the *Morgue*,	Males,	227	268
	Females,	41	
Total,			26,893

It is a fact now well ascertained, that the probable duration of human life has increased in a remarkable manner during the last half-century. In fact, it has increased so much as to have rendered it necessary of late to investigate anew into the laws of mortality, in order to form tables to correspond with an improvement that cannot be an instant doubted.

It would appear, that, previous to the Revolution, the medium term of existence in France was calculated by M. Duvillard at $28\frac{3}{4}$. Of course it

must be kept in mind, that the medium term of life differs from the probable term; for example, commencing with birth, the latter is only $20\frac{1}{3}$, while the former is $28\frac{3}{4}$. At the age of four or five, on the contrary, when the dangerous years of infancy are passed, the probable duration of life exceeds 45 years, while the medium is only 43. Since the Revolution, however, great changes have taken place in the different elements of population, and the medium as well as the probable term of existence is no longer the same as has been now stated.*

The adjoining table, calculated for the eight years from 1817 to 1824, by M. Mathieu, gives a view of what he terms the *mean annual movement* of the whole population of France; and the table which follows gives the proportion which the annual elements of that population bear to one another. They cannot fail to prove of interest, as pointing out the actual state of population in a country of such vast political importance as France; and, at the same time, no doubts can be entertained of

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* The following extract from the Boston Medical Advertiser, if it be correct, is very singular, and speaks strongly in favour of temperance in living:—

"Half the number of children born among the sect of Quakers attain the age of 47, while in London the half of those born average no more than the age of two and a half years † Amongst the former one in ten attains the age of eighty; amongst the latter only one in forty."

† *This is rating the mortality in London much too high.*

their correctness, as they are taken from the *annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes.**

TABLE I.

Mean Annual Movement.

Births.	Legitimate,	Boys,	461,787	894,747
		Girls,	432,960	
	Natural,	Boys,	34,005	66,398
		Girls,	32,392	

* From the age of Servius Tullius down to Justinian, a period comprising about ten centuries of the history of Rome, tables of mortality were kept both by the censors and emperors with great accuracy.

M. Dureau de la Malle, member of the Academy of Inscriptions, read to the Academy of Sciences, in its sitting of the 9th January, 1826, a very interesting paper upon this subject, and has given the following curious table, calculated by Domitius Ulpianus, first minister of Alexander Severus, and handed down by Emil. Macer, of the probabilities of human life at different ages among the Romans:—

0	20 years,	30 years.
20	25	28
25	30	25
30	35	22
35	40	20
40	45	18
45	50	13
50	55	9
55	60	7
60	65	5

The mean duration of human life then was fixed by Ulpianus at 30 years; for the law of succession says, *nunquam ergo amplius quam triginta annorum computatio initur, eoque nos jure, uti Ulpianus ait, &c.*

Births,	Legitimate and Natural,	Boys,	495,792	961,145
		Girls,	465,353	
Marriages,				225,658
Deaths,		Males,	384,712	761,326
		Females,	376,614	
Increase of population,		Boys,	111,080	199,819
		Girls,	88,739	
Population in 1820,				30,451,187

TABLE II.

Proportions of the Annual Elements of Population.

Births,	Legitimate,	Boys,	16
		Girls,	15,001
	Natural,	Boys,	21
		Girls,	20,004
	Legitimate and Natural.	Boys,	16
		Girls,	15,018
Children,		Legitimate,	13,476
		Natural,	1
Deaths,		Males,	47
		Females,	46,010
One marriage for		Inhabitants,	134,944
		Births,	4,259*
Legitimate children for each marriage,			3,965

* As a matter of comparison, it will be curious to show the supposed proportion of births to marriage in different parts of Europe :—

One death for	Inhabitants,		39,998
	Births,		1,262
One birth for	Inhabitants,		31,682
	Deaths,		0,792
Increase of population,	Males,	0,00365	$\frac{1}{274}$
	Females,	0,00291	$\frac{1}{343}$
	Total,	0,00656	$\frac{1}{152}$ *

Strasbourg, one marriage gives	3,3 births.
All England,	3,50
Hamburg,	2,38
Augsburg,	3,3
Leipsic,	3,1
Sweden,	3,62
Berlin,	3,7
Hanau,	3,75
Paris,	3,8
France,	4,21
Scotland,	4,5
Holland,	4,20
Moravia and Silesia,	4,81
Petersburg,	5,00
Portugal,	5,10
Part of Scotland,	5,13
Venice,	5,45
Savoy,	5,65
Some parts of England and Switzerland,	6,00
Entlibuch, in Switzerland, on three marriages,	19,

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* The following is a Table, showing the movement of the population of France at the time of Necker, 1780:—

Mortality of different ages.	Birth to 10	50.5 in 100
	Birth to 50,	78.5 100
	Birth to 60,	85.3 100
Proportion of deaths to population,		1 : 30.2

Were the increase of population to go on regularly as in this table, it would augment 1-10th in the space of $14\frac{1}{2}$ years; 2-10ths in 28 years; 3-10ths in 40 years; 4-10ths in $51\frac{1}{2}$ years; one-half in 62 years, and it would be doubled in 106. Since there is one birth for 31, 682 inhabitants, and one death for 39, 998, the

Proportion of population will be, . { To births, 31, 682 / To deaths, 39, 998

Supposing the population to be nearly stationary, the former of these terms, or 31, 682, expresses also the duration of the mean term of existence, which will be, in consequence, $31\frac{2}{3}$. The calculation of M. Duvillard being $28\frac{3}{4}$, it follows, that, since the Revolution, there is an increase of 3 years due to the introduction of vaccination and other causes. A favourable change is also indicated in the laws of mortality, which numberless facts have rendered apparent, not only in France, but in Europe in general.

M. de Chateauneuf, in a note read to the Academy of Sciences on the 30th January, 1826, and which he entitles "*Sur les Changemens qu'ont subis les Lois de la Mortalité en Europe, depuis un demi-siècle,*" makes some very interesting remarks

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Proportion of Births to population, . .	1 : 25.7
Marriages, .	1 : 111.3
Fecundity (nat. child. deducted), .	4.4.

Vid. Note de M. de Chateauneuf.

upon this subject, and gives the following table of the modifications which these laws have undergone :—

		Old Proportions.	Actual Prop.
Mortality of different ages.	0 to 10,	50 in 100	38.3
	0 to 50	74.4	66.0
	0 to 60	82	77.0
Proportion of Deaths to the living,		1 : 32.2	1 : 40.3
Births,		1 : 27.7	1 : 30.1
Marriages,		1 : 110.4	1 : 123.3
Fecundity of Marriages,		4.0	4.0

These proportions are taken upon the population of a tract of country extending from the 40th to the 65th degree of latitude, or in a line drawn from Lisbon to Stockholm, embracing an extent of about 1000 leagues, and inhabited by 65,000,000 of individuals, forming the population of Portugal, the kingdom of Naples, France, England, Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden.

In comparing the mortality of the capital with that of the provinces, many remarkable differences are to be observed in respect to distinction of age. These differences depend very much upon the manner of life led by the inhabitants of town or country, and in many cases they are inversely to one another. In Paris, the probability of human life has been fixed by M. Lacroix at 8 or 9 years, while for France it is 20 or 21. At the age of 40, he states the probability of life in Paris at 21, and in France at 23. This is perhaps rating the capi-

tal rather too low; for, at a time of life when the irregularities of the passions are subsiding, the chances are almost equally favourable in a town-life.* The period of existence at which a town-life appears to be most injurious is undoubtedly from one up to five years of age. It were needless to prove the superiority of the country during this tender age, for it is too well known already; but it may be remarked, that in towns of late years the mortality has very much diminished, from the greater atten-

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* The following table, representing the comparison of mean life in the two sexes united of two towns so different in all respects as Carlisle, in England, and Montpellier, in France, cannot fail of being interesting:—

Age.	Carlisle.	Montpellier.	Age.	Carlisle.	Montpellier.
0	38.72	25.35	55	17.58	17.11
5	51.25	45.47	60	14.34	14.59
10	48.82	45.52	65	11.79	12.28
15	45.00	41.62	70	9.18	10.07
20	41.46	38.06	75	7.01	8.05
25	37.86	34.98	80	5.51	6.02
30	34.34	31.97	85	4.12	4.21
35	31.00	28.95	90	3.28	3.76
40	27.61	25.85	95	3.53	3.47
45	24.46	22.83	100	2.28	2.56
50	21.11	19.91			

It will be seen from this table, that up to the age of 60 the chances are in favour of Carlisle; but beyond that age in favour of Montpellier. Altogether the result is very different from what *à priori* was to have been expected, considering the celebrity Montpellier enjoys for the superiority of its climate.

tion paid to the rearing of children, and from the superior degree of order and cleanliness observed in public establishments destined for their reception.

Dr Heberden, in a paper published in the London Medical Transactions, states, that in London, during the first half of the 18th century, the proportion of deaths to christenings was as 3 to 2, during the latter half as 5 to 4, and since 1800 as 12 to 15.* Here is certainly a very great improvement. The difference was principally observed upon children below two years of age; but it is a remarkable fact, that, notwithstanding the diminution of mortality has been so striking at this tender age, it does not appear that the number of persons who attain the age of 20 years is equally, if it be at all, increased. This may be accounted for by considering, that the greater proportion of children who die in hospitals are of feeble unhealthy constitution, inherited perhaps from the vices of their parents; that, by an improvement in treatment, many more than formerly are enabled to attain a certain age; but that after this, being less under the eye of their guardians, and more exposed to the risks of contagion, they are attacked by the diseases of more advanced years; and though they have been enabled to pass infancy without the vices of their constitution manifesting themselves, these ultimately come into operation, and render them unfit to support the trial.

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* Dr Granville states the number of births to that of deaths in the whole population of Russia to be as 16 : 10.

The following tables give the mortality in Paris and in Strasbourg for the period of 10 years, distributed according to age; the deaths in the former city for that time being 213,501, and in the latter 20,161 :—

		Paris.	Strasbourg.
From 0	to 1 year,	31,803	5577
1	2	10,670	1362
2	3	6313	
3	4	4471	1472
4	5	3305	
5	10	8355	746
10	15	11,194	300
15	20		387
20	25	20,541	815
25	30		624
30	40	15,785	1343
40	50	19,732	1451
50	60	21,726	1621
60	70	25,508	1976
70	80	24,749	1706
80	90	8749	591
90	100	574	56
100	upwards,	6	3*

It will be seen from the foregoing table, that what might have been deemed the most trying period of life, viz. from the age of 10 to 20, so far from being so, is, in reality, the least fatal; and that

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* The following table of the same description is taken from a medical topography of Stuttgart, entitled, *Versuch einer Medizinischen Topographie der Königlichen Haupt-und Resi-*

in Paris the number of deaths between 20 and 25, which is 12,306, is very nearly equal to the united products of the five preceding and five following years. This circumstance, however, may be readily explained. When infancy is passed, and before the age of manhood comes on, the youth of Paris lead an easy life compared with what the necessitous and hard-working natives of the provinces and of many other countries at the same period of life do; but when manhood arrives, many causes of ill health, till then unknown, come into play. While, on one hand, the storm of passion unhinges the constitution, excessive labour and unhealthy occupations, on the other, lay the foundation of diseases which are not long in manifesting themselves. The affections that had long lain latent, break forth in a fatal form. Bad air, sedentary habits, and

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denzstadt Stuttgart, von G. Cless, M. D. und G. Schübler, M. D.:—

AGES.	Of 11,722 deaths there were	In 1000 deaths were	Died annually one in
From 0 to 2 years,	4859	414	5
2 7	1311	112	27
7 14	386	33	72
14 20	220	19	139
20 30	509	43	98
30 40	627	54	70
40 50	731	62	52
50 60	846	72	37
60 70	993	85	22
70 80	922	79	14
80 90	295	25	11
90 100	23	2	9

the poisonous exhalations of crowded manufactories among the lower classes, and dissipation among the higher, act with powerful, and, too frequently, fatal influence, and the ravages of consumption spread about with fearful rapidity. From the tables of deaths for 1816–17–18–19, it appears that the average mortality from pulmonary complaints amounted annually to 4733, and of these there were 800 phthisical cases between the ages of 20 and 30.*

At a later period of existence it is probable that superiority in point of longevity is in favour of a town-life; for, though in the country there may be a purer air and a more regular course of existence, yet many comforts then become necessary, which a great city like Paris can alone afford. As already said, at the age of 40 years, M. Lacroix makes the probability of human life in Paris 21, and in all France 23. This is perhaps approximating as nearly as possible to what is really the case; but there is little doubt, that if the calculation were carried on it would be found, that at the age of 60 the probabilities would be in favour of Paris. The following facts go far in proof of this assertion:—In France it is supposed that 15 persons only in a million attain the age of 100, and 1262 that of 90. In Paris, in 1816, upon a mortality of 19,124 per-

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* M. Appert, in his *Journal des Prisons*, &c. says, that at least one-half of the deaths among prisoners confined in the Bicêtre, are caused by tubercular pulmonary phthisis.

sons, there were 19 males and 30 females who lived to between 90 and 95, and there were no less than 3 men and 9 women who attained the age of 100.*

That minute analysis of the materials or elements of population, now so much the object of study in all the principal towns of France, has not as yet excited such general observation in Great Britain. This is to be regretted on many accounts; for it is a study which must necessarily lead to the very best results. Glasgow has for a considerable time past been in some respects an exception to this reproach; and since 1820, when Mr Cleland took upon himself the charge of preparing the bills of mortality of that city, very considerable progress has been made in this interesting subject of inquiry.

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* Dr Granville, in his late interesting work, gives the following remarkable instances of longevity in Russia:—From the report of the Holy Synod, published in 1827, it appears, that there were living in 1825, among those who professed the Græco-Russian religion, throughout the empire, not fewer than 848 males who were 100 and more years old; among whom 32 had passed the age of 120; 4 were between 125 and 130, and 4 others between 130 and 135 years of age. The Gazette of the Royal Academy, published, in the month of January of the present year, a statement of the progress of population in Russia, as far as it concerns those who profess the Græco-Russian religion in the course of 1826. This document contains results still more extraordinary; for, out of 606,881 males who died that year, 2785 had passed the age of 90 years, 1432 that of 95, and 818 that of 100. Among the latter, 38 were more than 115 years of age, 24 more than 120, 7 more than 125, and 1 was 160 years old at his death.—Vol. ii. p. 465.

As comparison, therefore, always enhances the value of a work in which local facts are taken notice of, no apology will be necessary for introducing a few remarks upon the actual condition of the population in a town of so much importance as Glasgow.

The first remarkable circumstance that presents itself on looking into Mr Cleland's tables is the great increase in the mortality. Undoubtedly there has at the same time been a considerable increase of population; but, allowing this to its full extent, it is scarcely possible to account for it in this way altogether. The deaths registered for the seven years, 1821–27, were as follow:—

1821,	3686
1822,	3690
1823,	4627
1824,	4670
1825,	4898
1826,	4538
1827,	5136

There is here a difference between 1821 and 1827 of no fewer than 1450 deaths. The population in 1821 was 147,043; consequently the deaths for that year were to the whole population as $\frac{147043}{3686}$ –39,89.

Supposing, therefore, this proportion to be maintained, the population of Glasgow and its suburbs ought at present to be above 205,000, which is certainly much too high a calculation. During the same period of time the marriages present a com-

paratively trifling increase. In 1821 they were to the total population as $\frac{147043}{1465} = 100{,}37$. In 1827 they were 1635, which, in a like ratio, would suppose a population of 164,552. The baptisms entered in the public registers present also a singular result. In the year 1821 they were to the total population as $\frac{147043}{2661} = 55{,}25$; and in 1827 their total number was 2820; which, at the same rate, supposes a population of 155,842.

The baptisms entered in the public registers, however, are by no means the expression of the total births. It is a difficult matter to get the lower orders of people to register the births of their children; and Mr Cleland says, that, from information afforded him by the parish-ministers of Glasgow, he was enabled to certify the births of 2370 unregistered children from December, 1820, to December, 1821. It is evident, then, that any increase of population since the census of 1821 must be of the lowest class of persons. Sufficient proof is given of this in the great mortality, the small increase of marriages, and the small addition made to the number of registered baptisms.

Going upon data afforded by Mr Cleland's work, the following are the different proportions between the elements of population for the year 1821,—in which year the number of inhabitants was 147,043; the total number of births, 5031; of deaths, 3686, and of marriages, 1465:—

Deaths to population,	1 : 39,89
births,	1 : 1,365
marriages,	1 : 0,397
Births to population,	1 : 29,22
deaths,	1 : 0,707
marriages,	1 : 0,291
Marriages to population,	1 : 100,37
deaths,	1 : 2,50
births,	1 : 3,469

To render these proportions more apparent, they may be made out in the following manner, taking the number 1000 as the fixed term :—

1000 deaths, suppose { 39890.00—inhabitants, 1365.00—births, 397.00—marriages.

1000 births, suppose { 29220.00—inhabitants, 707.00—deaths, 291.00—marriages.

1000 marriages, suppose { 100370.00—inhabitants, 2500.00—deaths, 3469.00—births.

1000 inhabitants, suppose { 39.89—deaths, 29.22—births, 10.037—marriages.

It is unfortunate, that, in the tables of births published in different parts of Great Britain, attempts are so seldom made to distinguish legitimate from illegitimate children. It must always be a matter of extreme interest to trace the progress of morality or

immorality in a country or populous town; and, as long as these tables present this omission, it will be very difficult to obtain a proper view of the elements of population, which are connected more closely with that progress than may at first sight be imagined. Without this knowledge the laws of mortality cannot be accurately studied. In determining these laws, legitimate and illegitimate births cannot be viewed in the same light; for, as the one or other predominates, these laws must necessarily vary. It is well known, that the ratio of mortality among illegitimate children is always greater than among legitimate. It is evident, then, that, unless the respective numbers of the two be known, it is impossible to attain the just term of the two united, or to become acquainted with the causes which produce variations in towns or tracts of country under parallel circumstances in other respects.

Mr Cleland's tables do not say if the total births in Glasgow have presented the same increase as the mortality, but the registered births certainly do not: the births therefore not registered must belong to the lowest class of the inhabitants; and it is fair to suppose, that a considerable proportion of them must be illegitimate, as the number of marriages has not increased in a ratio with the deaths, and, it is to be supposed, with the births. It is easy, too, to conceive, that the mother of an illegitimate child would, from shame, not wish it registered, as the register must necessarily require the names of the parents, which it is her object to conceal.

In the following table the number of deaths, according to age, for the seven years 1821-1827, in Glasgow, is given for males and females; and, to render the interest of it greater, a second table gives the proportions of deaths at different ages to the total deaths in Glasgow, London, and Paris :—*

Deaths in Glasgow for 1821-1827.

		Males.	Females.	Total.
Still-born,		1119	983	2174
0	1 year,	3182	2797	5979
1	2	2087	1896	3983
2	5	1423	1334	2757
5	10	888	817	1705
10	20	859	889	1746
20	30	1056	1057	2113
30	40	904	956	1860
40	50	975	987	1962
50	60	986	1060	2046
60	70	1003	1073	2076
70	80	920	979	1899
80	90	387	432	819
90	95	58	56	114
95	100	17	20	37
100		3	6	9
	Total,	15,939	15,340	31,279

* The data affording the means of constructing the tables are, for London, taken from *The Gentlema 's Magazine*; for Paris, from *Lachaise's Topographie Médicale*; and for Glasgow, from Mr Cleland's work just published. The proportions in Glasgow are taken on seven years, in Paris on ten years, and in London for 1825.

Proportion of Deaths according to Age.

Years.	London.	Paris.	Glasgow.
0 2	1 : 3,49	0 1 1 : 6,70 / 1 2 1 : 20,01 } 1 : 5,02	Still-born, 1 : 14,38 / 0 1 1 : 5,39 / 1 2 1 : 7,85 } 1 : 2,80
2 5	1 : 10,47	1 : 15,15	1 : 11,38
5 10	1 : 27,02	1 : 25,55	1 : 13,34
10 15 / 15 20	1 : 25,69	1 : 19,07	1 : 17,91
20 30	1 : 14,10	1 : 10,39	1 : 14,80
30 40	1 : 12,04	1 : 13,52	1 : 16,31
40 50	1 : 10,41	1 : 10,82	1 : 15,94
50 60	1 : 10,77	1 : 9,82	1 : 15,28
60 70	1 : 11,33	1 : 8,37	1 : 15,06
70 80	1 : 13,23	1 : 8,62	1 : 16,47
80 90	1 : 32,74	1 : 24,40	1 : 38,19
90 95 / 95 100	1 : 230,64	1 : 371,98	1 : 274,37
100 and above.	1 : 2965,42	1 : 35583,50	1 : 845,37 / 1 : 3475,44

This table cannot fail to be interesting, as showing at what periods of life mortality is greatest in three towns situated at so considerable a distance from one another.

It will be seen, that, in London, that period is from 40 to 50, in Paris from 60 to 70, and in Glasgow from 20 to 30, taking the deaths from the age of 5 upwards at like intervals of 10 years. Taking wider intervals, we find the deaths from

		London.	Glasgow.	Paris.
0	30 years,	1 : 1,89	1 : 1,529	1 : 2,208
0	60	1 : 1,248	1 : 1,270	1 : 1,387

It will be seen, that in old age as well as infancy the balance is considerably in favour of Paris.

When it is considered that one-third of the deaths in Paris take place in hospitals, the foregoing de-

tails will not appear out of place or irrelevant to the subject. In fact, it is almost in hospitals alone that a proper idea can be formed of the real medical constitution of the year in respect to the nature, symptoms, type, and other characters of disease. Of course, it is there that the ratio of mortality is to be studied, and how that ratio is influenced by season or change of season. In private practice much cannot be done; the whole circumstances attendant upon individual cases cannot well be made publicly known, and therefore there must always be an uncertainty as to the correctness of facts drawn from such a source. In hospitals, observation is public; and the assistance afforded by the community entitles them to a full history of the institutions supported by them.*

The effect of climate in producing, influencing, or aggravating disease, is an object of inquiry not less curious than interesting. The knowledge of it is necessary, in the most absolute sense of the word, to every person who wishes to study the true character of the animal economy, who wishes to be-

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* It may be here mentioned, that in the Hospital of Würtzbourg each corporation has a distinct ward. This disposition might prove of immense service in the study of the diseases proper to certain professions; but, unfortunately, at Würtzbourg the number of beds is too inconsiderable to allow of results of any importance being drawn from it.

Vid. Friedlander, *Coup-d'Œil des Hôpitaux, &c. en Allemagne*, p. 19.

come acquainted with the phenomena attending the presence of disease, and, above all, to him who wishes to benefit his fellow-men. The influence alluded to is far from being an imaginary one. The consequence of a sudden change of weather upon the inmates of an hospital is so marked as to allow of no doubt. The effects produced upon the symptoms of disease, by what, in vulgar language, is termed a change of air, by removal from one part of a country to another, from town to country, or from country to town, are so well known as to preclude the necessity of enlarging upon them. Hitherto climate has been considered on the great scale, but it may be viewed on a smaller scale. Each hospital may be said to have its peculiar climate, taking the word in the sense already pointed out, as including not merely atmospheric vicissitudes, but the nature and physical features of the surrounding soil. A want of attention to this has often been followed by bad consequences; for, according to the climate thus viewed, ought the medical practice to be modified. The failure of success in the medical and surgical treatment in many hospitals, it is not too much to say, is to be attributed in a great degree to this cause.

In the same manner as the salubrity of a city, or of a tract of country, is materially affected by the neighbourhood of mountain-chains, of the ocean, of great rivers, of marshes, or other physical features; and as the prevalent diseases of a place, and the symptoms or termination of the same disease vary,

according as the surrounding country is damp or dry, level or mountainous,—so the situation of an hospital may affect materially the type, character, symptoms, and termination of the maladies treated in it; and it is not improbable that this happens more frequently, and to a greater extent, than is generally imagined. To show how the character of disease may be changed, it may be allowed to quote a passage already given in a former part of this work. In this passage it is remarked, when speaking of the improvements made in the Hôtel Dieu of Paris, that M. Dupuytren says, " If in consequence putrid and malignant fevers, mortification, and gangrene, can no longer be observed, pneumony, pleurisy, and peritonitis have increased, and in the surgical wards now the causes of death are almost invariably inflammatory."

Upon examination of the bills of mortality in a variety of European hospitals, nothing at first sight appears so striking and so extraordinary as the enormous disparity observable in the number of deaths proportioned to the population. The cause of this disparity is frequently looked for in the character and practice of the medical men attending; and in some cases, undoubtedly, a particular mode of treatment will lead to results different from what might have been expected from the ordinary practice: but, at the same time, it must be allowed, that many circumstances, having little or no connexion with the mode of cure, concur in producing the differences that are to be observed in hospital-establishments.

The circumstances thus influencing the mortality of hospitals are, the physical situation, the internal management, the nature of the maladies for the treatment of which patients are admitted, and even the prevalent manufactures of the town in which the hospital is situated. Of the effect of the first of these causes it would not be difficult to bring proof; the benefit arising from the ameliorations that are making every day in the hospitals of France would almost of itself be sufficient. How much has the clearing away around the Hôtel Dieu tended, with the internal improvements undertaken at the same time, to diminish the fearful mortality, that, previous to the Revolution, rendered it an object almost of horror? The position of this great building, however, is still bad, and had it been removed altogether, as was once intended, to another site, the benefit obtained would, in all likelihood, have been much greater.

The great hospital of the Hôtel Dieu at Lyons, magnificently situated as it seems to be on the quay of the Rhone, with a full and open exposure in front to the river, is still, even in respect to situation, extremely defective. Its foundation is low and damp, and behind and at the sides it is closed up and confined by narrow and lofty streets, that will scarcely admit the rays of the sun or the influence of the wind. At certain seasons of the year, dense and damp fogs hang over the river, and have a sensible and injurious effect on the course of disease. Catarrhal affections, in consequence, are common, and

the termination of surgical cases is nowhere more doubtful, on that account, than in this great hospital.

Dr Otto, in his Travels, mentions, that in the great hospital of Venice, the proportion of deaths from inflammatory affections of the thorax, is not less than 20 per 100. This must undoubtedly be attributed to its peculiar situation. But it is needless to multiply instances; for theory has here been completely established by fact. Observation and experience have distinctly shown, that the state of the surrounding atmosphere, as influenced by the nature of the soil, must influence to a greater or less degree the course of the disease. But, in speaking of the mortality of French hospitals, as compared with those of other countries, this is a point on which it will not be necessary to insist farther; for, as physical circumstances attendant on situation are to be met with, in a certain degree affecting all, it would be difficult, without entering too deeply into the subject, to draw any real line of demarcation. The great lesson to be attended to here is the general one, that a consideration of the situation and the physical qualities of the neighbourhood of an hospital is of primary importance. More detailed observations must depend on the circumstances and capabilities of each particular place.

But there is another point which now merits particular attention, and that is the nature or description of disease admitted into hospitals. There are many hospitals that receive incurable diseases alone;

there are others that receive only such patients as are afflicted with maladies which are denominated curable; there is a third class that admits every species of disease. The consideration of the diseases admitted, then, will point out, in a great measure, the cause of the disparity in the extent of mortality, and will explain why the Parisian hospitals, about the best conducted in Europe, are, to appearance, the most fatal. Many hospitals refuse admission to phthisical patients, whilst others receive them. In Paris, Berlin, and Vienna, these form a very numerous class; and it is ascertained, that one-fifth of the annual deaths in these establishments are from pulmonary consumption: the proportion is sometimes much greater. In many British hospitals, consumptive patients are not admitted. The evident consequence of this must be, that as a disease almost invariably fatal in its termination is received into one hospital, and excluded from another, the proportion of mortality in the two must be widely different. When, therefore, in comparing British with continental hospitals, a great excess of mortality is found in the latter, there is no reason, on that account, to conclude that the former are better managed, or their medical attendants better acquainted with their profession.* The diseases that increase in the

* Professor Tommasini, in speaking of the small mortality in the medical clinics of the university of Bologna, says, "Are results so fortunate, not in a great measure due to chance or the accidental combination of favourable elements, stranger

greatest degree the mortality of hospitals are, pulmonary and mesenteric consumption, dropsy and malignant fevers; and in proportion as these preponderate, so will the mortality.

In many hospitals, chronic diseases, of a nature very seldom fatal, are admitted, while from others they are excluded. Thus syphilitic patients, and such as are affected with cutaneous disorders, while they swell the lists of an hospital, by no means in an equal proportion swell its bills of mortality. It is evident, that with such patients, let the household-management be ever so bad, the medical attendants ever so careless, it would be difficult to make the mortality very considerable. This, then, is another circumstance that assists in explaining the disparity in the proportion of deaths in the hospitals of France and Britain. In the former country, all venereal and psoric patients are excluded from the general sick-hospitals, and confined to hospitals specially destined for their particular class of maladies. In Britain, on the contrary, many hospitals receive such patients. In French hospitals, therefore, in most cases, diseases which are rarely fatal are excluded, while those almost always fatal are received; in England the opposite practice is adopted. The relative proportion of deaths in either, then, must be greater or less as the one or other system is followed.

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to the remedies or modes of cure?" and he adds, "How often are we deceived in attributing to the physician the honour of the cure, or accusing him of the death?"—*Prospetto dei Risultamenti, &c.*

There is still another important circumstance to be mentioned as influencing the relative mortality of hospitals, and that is, the degree of strictness in the regulations concerning the admission of patients. It has been already remarked, when speaking of the *Bureau Central*, that very great attention is paid in France, and more particularly in Paris, to this subject. The general effect of the regulations adopted in that Bureau is to exclude such persons as would enter into an hospital with very slight cause of complaint, or out of mere laziness, and to admit only such as are in a state of real bodily disease requiring good and constant medical attendance. Regulations to this extent, and of such efficacy, are by no means adopted in all the great hospitals of other countries; in consequence of which, as may *à priori* be supposed, bad cases are not diminished, while the number of trifling cases is unnecessarily augmented.

It is to the difference in the nature of these regulations that must be referred the variations observable in the average of mortality in the hospitals of Paris and those of the provinces, but more particularly of Italy. The mortality in the Hôtel Dieu and La Charité varies from 1 in 6 to 1 in 7, while in Pavia it is nearer 1 in 11, and in Rome still less. It is not easy to account for this difference in any other way; for the diseases admitted are nearly the same in the one as in the other; and with respect to medical talents, the names of the medical attendants in the Parisian hospitals render it impossible to as-

cribe it to any inferiority or defect in the medical treatment. The only reasonable cause that can be assigned is the difference in the hospital-regulations.

The two other circumstances which may influence the mortality of hospitals are, the internal management and cleanliness, and the nature of the prevailing manufactures in the district to which the hospital may belong. On the former of these points it is surely unnecessary to insist at any length. Common sense will point out the absolute necessity of attending to all matters connected with what may be termed the *hygiene* of hospital-establishments. A moment's reference to the state of the Hôtel Dieu previous to the Revolution will be sufficient to prove the advantages dependent upon this; and the rare occurrence of that dreadful evil known by the name of hospital-gangrene, since a more strict degree of attention has been paid to cleanliness, is an important and gratifying result, which affords a striking proof of the necessity of paying particular attention to this circumstance. French hospitals, in general, deserve great praise for their internal condition. The General Hospital Council has been long labouring to introduce a complete system of cleanliness and convenience, and it has published various edicts to this effect, in which the most trifling details are not overlooked.

It has been said, that the mortality of an hospital may vary according to what may be the prevalent manufacture of the country in which it is situated. That this is the case can scarcely be

doubted, though it would be difficult perhaps to particularize the exact effects. In manufacturing districts, and especially where the manufacture is of a deleterious nature, it is naturally to be expected that mortality will he more considerable. The hospital that receives the inhabitants of such districts, therefore, will present a proportion of deaths much greater than an hospital situated where more stirring and invigorating labour renders the constitution robust and the health less precarious.*

Such are the various circumstances to be attended to by persons wishing to make inquiries into the character of hospital-establishments, and which are too often overlooked in such investigations. They at once explain what otherwise must appear quite anomalous; and when they are taken into consideration, no wonder will be expressed, when it is affirmed, that the mortality of French hospitals is greater than that of most hospitals of continental Europe, and nearly twice as great as that of British hospitals.

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* The following facts, from a paper read to the Academy of Sciences by M. Villermé, are strongly in favour of the opinions here advanced, of the mortality in hospitals being influenced by the nature of the mechanical professions of their inmates. Speaking of the proportion that subsists between the degree of poverty and the danger of disease, he adds, "Among jewellers, printers, &c. the mortality in hospitals is rated at 1 in 11 sick; among sempstresses 1 in 8; shoemakers, &c. 1 in 7; masons 1 in 6; day-labourers to masons and others 1 in 5; rag-pickers (*chiffonniers*) 1 in 4; and among hard-working porters and their children it is very great."

We shall finish this chapter by stating the mortality of the great sick-hospital of Paris for 1822, as given in the *Resumé des Comptes Moraux* for that year, and also that of several other hospitals obtained from different sources :

		Men.			Women.			Total General.
		Med.	Surg.	Total.	Med.	Surg.	Total.	
Hôtel Dieu,	ann. popul.	4606	1909	6515	4201	813	5014	11,529
	dismissed,	3664	1605	5269	3118	689	3807	9076
	dead,	685	154	839	786	65	851	1690
	mortality,	1 in $6\frac{72}{100}$	1 in $12\frac{39}{100}$	1 in $7\frac{76}{100}$	1 in $5\frac{34}{100}$	1 in $12\frac{50}{100}$	1 in $5\frac{89}{100}$	1 in $6\frac{85}{100}$
La Charité,	popul.	2264	609	2873	669	258	927	3800
	dismissed,	1746	490	2236	465	215	680	2916
	dead,	369	65	434	146	15	161	595
	mortality,	1 in $5\frac{27}{100}$	1 in $8\frac{35}{100}$	1 in $6\frac{66}{100}$	1 in $4\frac{27}{100}$	1 in $15\frac{5}{100}$	1 in $5\frac{36}{100}$	1 in $5\frac{53}{100}$
La Pitié,	popul.	2385	616	3001	1685	*526	2211	5212
	dismissed,	1938	535	2473	1268	460	1728	4201
	dead,	307	28	335	273	25	298	633
	mortality,	1 in $7\frac{77}{100}$	1 in 22	1 in $8\frac{95}{100}$	1 in $6\frac{17}{100}$	1 in $18\frac{34}{100}$	1 in $7\frac{42}{100}$	1 in $8\frac{23}{100}$

By information furnished by M. le D. Lauth of Strasbourg, the following is a statement of the con-

* This number includes 70 women afflicted with syphilis, who are sent to this hospital from the prefecture of police. This is one reason why the mortality is less in the Pitié than in the other two great hospitals.

dition of the general hospital of that city for the year 1826:

In the hospital on January 1, 1826,	449
Entered during the year,	2867
Dismissed,	2541
Dead,	271
Mortality,	$9\frac{57}{100}$

This mortality is considerably less than in the sick-hospitals of the capital; but the difference is easily explained when it is known, that every description of inmate is received in the Strasbourg hospital, not merely the really sick, but also lunatics, aged pensioners, lying-in women, and psoric and venereal patients.

In the Hôtel Dieu of Lyons the number of inmates and deaths for the year, beginning 1st July, 1812, and ending 1st July, 1813, was as follows:

Total inmates,	10,219
Discharged,	9073
Dead,	1216
Mortality,	one in $8\frac{40}{100}$

The cases of consumption amounted to 119; but to counterbalance this, it may be mentioned, that among the total number of inmates there were 324 pregnant women, of whom only seven died.*

* It may be here mentioned, that the hospitals of Lyons were accounted the best managed in France before the Revolution. The King of Portugal, designing to establish an hospital at Lisbon, ordered plans of them to be taken, and ob-

In the Hôtel Dieu of Aix, in Provence, were admitted in 1822, 1098 civil and 768 military patients; of the former class—

Died,	156	
Cured,	696	1098
Not cured,	110	
Remain,	136	
Mortality,		1 in $7_{\frac{1}{100}}$

In the great hospital, the *Königl. Charité-Krankenhaus* of Berlin, the following is the mortality for the eleven years, from 1807 to 1817, according to Dr Ernst Horn:

Total number of patients,	41,205
Discharged,	34,097
Dead,	6,342

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tained copies of all their statutes and regulations to guide him in placing it on a good footing.

When the Marquis de Pignatelli, ambassador of Spain, was asked what he admired most in France, he answered, that the hospitals of Lyons and their internal management struck him more than any thing. This praise was not merited by many hospitals at that period. The most of those possessed by France were directed by administrators who went into the direction poor and came out of it rich. "On se rappelle l'anecdote de M. le Marquis de Rhodes, qui sous le regne de Louis XIV. entreprit alternativement l'exploitation des mines d'or sur les Pyrénées et l'administration des biens des pauvres dans nos hôpitaux. Les mines d'or le ruinèrent; les hôpitaux l'enrichirent." Vid. *Moyens de Détruire la Mendicité en France*, &c. *Chalons-Sur-marne*, 1780.

Vid. Dr Clark's Medical Notes, &c. p. 187.

Mortality,	.	as $6\frac{1053}{2113}:1$ or nearly 1 in $6\frac{1}{2}$*

The following is the report of the hospital of St John, in Turin, for the year 1818:

Remaining 31st December, 1817,	480	4560
Received during the year, .	4080	
Discharged, . .		3603
Died, . . .		488
Mortality, . .		1 in $9\frac{32}{1000}$ †

The number of patients treated in the general hospital of Pavia, in the year 1824, was 5087; the mortality upon which number was 1 in $10\frac{4643}{5087}$.‡

Dr Granville says, that the mortality in the St Petersburg hospital is greater than in most other hospitals, and nearly twice that of London. From official documents in 1811-12, published by Hermann, in the ninth volume of the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences of St Petersburg, it appears that the average mortality in the two principal civil hospitals for these two years was $18\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., or nearly triple what it is in London.§

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* Oeffentliche Rechenschaft über meine zwölfjährige Dienstführung als zweiter arzt des Königl. Charité-Krankenhauses zu Berlin vom Dr Ernst Horn, seite 290.

† Dr Clark's Medical Notes, &c. p. 215.

‡ Note furnished by Professor Rusconi of Pavia.

§ In the year 1803, in Russia, there were 57 sick-hospitals in 40 governments; of which 9 were military and 11 naval hospitals. Into these were admitted, in the year 1804, 263,450 sick; of which number 220,187 were dismissed,

Great as the mortality still is, it is not equal to what it was during the preceding century, as the following extract from M. Georgi's work will show:

In 1785 there remained 95 sick of the former year; 1189 were admitted in the course of the year; of these 844 were cured, and 302 died.

On the 1st January, 1786, there were 136 in the hospital. Admitted during the year, 1237; dead, 410.

On 1st January, 1787, remained, 174; admitted, 1842; cured, 1459; dead, 372.

In 1788, total treated, 2627; cured, 1814; dead, 573.*

The following statement of the condition of the sick received into the hospital-general of Santa-Cruz, in Barcelona, is taken from *El Europeo, periodico de ciencias*, 1823, No 12:—

Years.	Existing.	Entered.	Cured.	Dead,	Remaining.
1820	469	3800	3366	405	495
1821	495	3866	3664	754	243
1822	243				388
1823	388	3456	3031	539	304

10,716 died, 10,480 removed to other establishments, and in 1805 there remained 22,067.

Darstellung der Russischen Monarchie nach ihren wichtigsten, statistisch-politischen Beziehungen von B. von Wichmann. 2te abtheilung, s. 332.

* Description de la Ville de Petersbourg, &c., par M. Georgi, p. 210.

According to the *Bolletino Univers. di Scienzie, Lettere, Arti, e Polit.*, there were received into the Hospital of Palermo, in the year 1824, 4221 patients, of whom 515 died; being about 12 per cent.

The number of persons treated in the hospitals of Leghorn for the space of seven years (1818–1824) was as follows :—

	Sick treated.	Died.	Proportion.
Sick (civil),	9471	1323	: : 1 : $7\frac{1}{8}$
(military),	7878	1110	$7\frac{1}{2}$
Females, .	8498	1140	$7\frac{1}{2}$*

The medical patients received into the Glasgow Infirmary in the year 1827 amounted to 2135, of whom 1055 were males, and 1080 females. Of the former, the average mortality was 1 : $8\frac{2}{3}$; of the latter, 1 : $10\frac{1}{4}$; greater, in consequence, than in most of the British hospitals, and more nearly approaching that of Paris; but the list of the diseases treated during that year sufficiently explains the cause of this great mortality. The number of persons afflicted with typhus fever was 1078, and the mortality upon that number was 1 in 7 for males, and 1 in 10 for females. Dysentery, also, was very formidable, and the number labouring under it in the acute form was no less than 105. It

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* *Ricerche di Statistica Medica, &c., par MM. Jos. Gordini et Nic. Orsini.*

may also be added, that 42 cases of pulmonary phthisis are to be observed in the list.

The number of surgical patients for the same year was 795. Males, 511; females, 284. The average mortality among the former, 1 in $14\frac{1}{6}$; in the latter, 1 in $14\frac{1}{7}$. The total number of medical and surgical cases, therefore, for 1827 was 2930, and the average mortality upon all, 1 : 11,73.*

The following is a table of patients admitted, cured, and dead in the Royal Infirmary of Edinburgh for a series of years:—

	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.
Remaining January 1,	178	181	170	175
Admitted during the year,	2381	2221	2346	2697
Cured,	1691	1518	1630	1923
Relieved,	219	221	265	260
With advice,	23	29	20	35
As irregular,	8	14	23	36
As improper,	88	91	45	26
By desire,	123	150	125	98
Died,	223	209	233	274
Remaining 31st December,	181	170	175	220
Mortality,	1 in 10,65	1 in 10,67	1 in 10,05	1 in 9,67

On the 1st October, 1826, there were remaining in the Royal Infirmary	203
Admitted during the year, to 1st October, 1827,	3493
	3696

* *Vid.* the 23d annual report of the Glasgow Royal Infirmary, from 1st January, 1827, to 1st January, 1828.

Of whom were dismissed,

Cured,	2591
Relieved,	324
With advice,	15
As irregular,	14
As improper,	34
By desire,	101
Remained on 1st October,	240
Died,	377
Mortality,	1 in 9.16

In the course of the year there were admitted into the fever-hospital, Queensberry House, 677 patients, of whom 77, or 1 in 8,79 died. There were then in all 4373 persons who received the benefit of the institution, and the mortality among all classes was 1 in 9,1.

There have been received, then, into the Royal Infirmary, during the years 1822-23-24-25-27, 13,279 patients, of whom 9353 were dismissed cured, and 1316 died; being an average mortality of 1 : 10,08. This is exclusive of 677 patients admitted into Queensberry House, among whom the mortality was 77, or 1 : 8,79.

The following is a recapitulation of the rate of mortality in the various hospitals mentioned in the preceding pages:—

St Petersburg,	1 : 5,55
Barcelona,	1 : 6,02
Berlin,	1 : 6,50
Paris (*Charité*),	1 : 6,66
Aix, in Provence,	1 : 7,04
Leghorn,	1 : 7,50
Paris (*Hôtel Dieu*)	1 : 7,76
Palermo,	1 : 8,33
Lyons,	1 : 8,40
Paris (*Pitié*)	1 : 8,92
Turin,	1 : 9,03

Strasbourg,	1 : 9,37
Edinburgh,	1 : 10,08
Pavia,	1 : 10,90
Glasgow,	1 : 11,73

CHAPTER VI.

SICK-HOSPITALS.—DIET-TABLES OF THE HOSPITALS OF FRANCE AND OF OTHER COUNTRIES.—DAILY AND ANNUAL EXPENSE OF THE INMATES.

In continuing the account of hospital-establishments, it will be necessary, in order to prevent confusion, to adhere to their division into sick-hospitals, hospitals for the infirm and aged, and hospitals for children.

The present chapter will comprise sick-hospitals alone, and more especially those of Paris; which, with the number of patients treated in the year 1822, are as follows:—

Hôtel Dieu,	11,529
La Pitié,	5212
La Charité,	3800
St Louis,	5574
St Antoine,	2964
Des Vénériens,	3313
Necker,	1290
Cochin,	1526
Beaujon,	1815

Of these hospitals some are general, others destined for particular maladies. Thus, the *Hôpital des Vénériens* receives only patients of either sex afflicted with syphilis, and the *Hôpital St Louis*

persons afflicted with diseases of the skin. The hospitals *des Enfans Malades* and *d'Accouchement* might also have been included in the list of sick-hospitals; but it is thought better to refer them to that part of the work treating of the establishments connected with childhood. The formalities necessary to be gone through before obtaining admission into any of the above-mentioned hospitals have been already sufficiently detailed, as well as the various points relative to the household-management and arrangement of the *personnel.* It is to the diet of the inmates that the attention is now to be directed, and it is a subject which merits very particular notice. In an *arreté* of 1806 the council issued the following instructions for hospital-regimen:—

" Il y a journellement dans chaque hôpital un régime gras et un régime maigre.

" Les alimens pour la journée entière des malades de la Maison de Santé, et des malades dans les hôpitaux, sont fixés par portion entière, trois quarts de portion, demi-portion, quart de portion, soupe, bouillons ou diète.

" Il est mis dans la marmite générale de chacun de ces établissemens, 25 décagrammes (8 onces) de viande crue, par chaque malade, soit au régime gras, soit au régime maigre; et 18 décagrammes (6 onces) aussi par chaque malade de l'Hôpital des Enfans; il est ajouté dans la marmite de la Maison de Santé seulement une poule du poids d'un kilogramme environ (2 livres) par quarante malades.

" Une poule forme six parts de portion entière qui

sont servies, en remplacement de bouilli, aux malades à qui cette nourriture est ordonnée par les officiers de santé.

" La viande bouillie, qui se trouve en excédant après la distribution, est reservée pour le souper des gens de service, en remplacement de légumes ou de fromage. Chaque portion est de 18 décagrammes (6 onces) desossée.

" Le lait, le vermicelle, le riz, et la bouillie, sont servis aux malades au régime maigre, suivant les quantités prescrites par le cahier de visite des officiers de santé.

" Le vin est distribué aux malades suivant les quantités determinées par le présent arrêté, et celles prescrites au cahier de visite des officiers de santé. Un malade au quart de portion de pain, de viande, &c., peut être mis à la portion entière de vin; de même celui à la portion entière de pain, de viande, &c. peut n'être mis qu'à une partie de la portion de vin, ou cette boisson lui être absolument defendue.

" La portion comprend, pour les vingt-quatre heures, savoir :—

" *Malades.*—Portion entière 50 centilitres (1 chopine) de vin.

Trois quarts de portion, 36 centilitres (3 poissons).

Demi-portion, 25 centilitres (1 demi-setier) de vin.

Quart de portion, 12 centilitres (1 poisson) de vin.

" *Enfans.*—Portion entière 20 centilitres (la cinquième partie de la pinte) de vin.

Trois quarts de portion, 15 centilitres (la septième partie de la pinte) de vin.

Demi-portion, 10 centilitres (la dixième partie de la pinte) de vin.

Quart de portion, 5 centilitres (la vingtième partie de la pinte) de vin."*

Pursuant to the regulations adopted by the General Council, the following is a statement of the diet of the sick-hospitals :

1.—BREAD.

Portions.		New Weights.	Old Weights.
		Deca.	liv. oz.
Men	Entire,	0,60	1 4
	Three-fourths,	0,45	15
	Half,	0,30	10
	Quarter,	0,15	5
Women	Entire,	0,48	1
	Three-fourths,	0,36	12
	Half,	0,24	8
	Quarter,	0,12	4
In addition for soup,		0,12	4

The 4 ounces of bread allowed for soup may be replaced, for variety, by 2 ounces of rice or vermicelli.†

* *Extrait de l'Arrêté du Conseil Général des Hospices, du 9 Juillet,* 1806.

† " Il pourra, en outre, être accordé aux galeux et vénériens des deux sexes, admis à l'Hôpital St Louis et à l'Hôpital des Vénériens, 12 decagrammes (4 onces) de pain en remplacement de vin."—*Arrêté du Conseil Général des Hospices du 5 Octobre,* 1814.

2.—SOUP.*

The quantity of soup allowed is the same for all, being two portions of 25 centilitres (demi-setier 0·5283 English wine-pints) each. But in addition, patients upon the half-regimen receive also 2 *bouillons* of 25 centilitres each, and those upon the quarter-regimen 3 *bouillons* of the same size.

3.—MEAT.

Entire portion,	8	ounces	dressed meat.
$\frac{3}{4}$ portion,	6	ditto	ditto.
$\frac{1}{2}$ portion,	4	ditto	ditto.
$\frac{1}{4}$ portion,	2	ditto	ditto.

4.—VEGETABLES.

Entire portion,	$\frac{1}{20}$ of a pint dried vegetables, or 3 ounces of fresh vegetables, or 2 ounces of prunes.

For the other portions there is a regular gradation in the quantity of the same materials; it is therefore unnecessary to state them in detail.

Besides the four *portions*, patients may be put upon what is termed the *diéte*, when they receive soup or *bouillon* in quantity proportional to the state they may be in.

The *régime maigre* differs from the *régime gras*

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* The regimen that follows is applicable to the Hôtel Dieu, La Charité, St Louis, St Antoine, La Pitié, Necker, Cochin, and Beaujon. The regimen of the hospital des Vénériens is different, and will be given in another place.

merely in the want of animal and the increase of vegetable food. Fish is sometimes allowed. The full portion of vegetables is 12 ounces, or, in lieu of that, 3 eggs, or 2 eggs and 8 ounces of vegetables. The other diets are in proportion.

*The soup (*bouillon gras*), which is given indifferently to the sick and to the household, is made of the following materials, and in the following proportions:—For 200 pounds of raw meat there are put into the general boiler 20 pounds of different kitchen-vegetables and 6 pounds of salt; for every 8 ounces of meat there are added 60 centilitres 1·2679 English wine-pints of water, which is reduced one-sixth, or to 50 centilitres, by boiling.

The *bouillon maigre*, or vegetable soup, is made as follows:—For 100 portions, there are put into the boiler 5 pounds of kitchen vegetables, 4 pounds of butter, 2 pounds of salt, 4 pints of dried vegetables (such as pease), and a due proportion of pepper.

In every case where fresh vegetables do not ex-

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* The following is a statement of the quantity and nature of materials used in Heriot's Hospital, Edinburgh, for 180 portions:—

Porridge,—For morning and evening, 12½ pecks meal daily.

Broth,— 5 stones 6 lbs of beef.
14 lbs of barley.
7 lbs of pease,
Besides cabbages and other vegetables, the quantity of which is not so closely calculated.

Pea-Soup,—38 lbs of pease.
10 lbs of rice.

ceed dry ones in expense, they are to be used in preference.

The bread used in the hospitals is of two qualities, *pain blanc* and *pain bis.* An *arreté* of 1820 determines what proportion of bread should be made from a fixed quantity of flour. This proportion is, for a sack of first quality, weighing 159 kilogrammes (354 pounds), 205 kil. 50 dec. (456 pounds 8 ounces) of white bread ; and from a sack of second quality, weighing also 159 kilo., 209 kilo. 50 dec. (465 pounds 6 ounces) of pain bis (brown bread).*

The wine in daily use is of course neither of high flavour nor great price ; it is good ordinary wine, of sound quality. The better descriptions of wine form part of the pharmaceutical stores, and are administered as medicine.†

Such is a short statement of the nature of hospital-diet in Paris. It may, however, be mentioned, that though the regulations are in general strictly adhered to, yet, in cases where it may be deemed necessary, the medical attendant has a discretionary power, and may order what he deems requisite for the health of the patient, though that article be not included in the diet-tables.

As throughout the numerous hospitals of France there does not exist any very great difference in the

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* *Vid.* page 92 for a description of the *Boulangerie Générale*, where the bread is baked.

† *Vid.* page 98 for a description of the *Cave Générale.*

regimen adopted for the sick, it is thought unnecessary to give any lengthened detail of what this difference consists in. As, however, comparative tables are always interesting, it will not be superfluous to state what is the nature of hospital-diet in one provincial town of France, and in one or two towns of other countries. In giving these tables, it will be an object, as far as that is possible, to place them in the form they are suspended in the wards for the signature of the hospital-attendants.

TABLE I.—*Hospital of Strasbourg.*

Mois de ____ Relevé de Visite du 182

Salle No Nombre de Malades . . . .

Alimens.	Quotité des Portions. Nouveaux Poids.	Anc. Poids.	Quantités. Mat.	Soir.	Total.
Pain Blanc,	Portions de 37½ decag.				
	Id. de 25 id.				
	Id. de 12½ id.				
	Soupes, de 6¼ id.				
	Panades, de 12½ id.				
Vin Rouge,	Entières, de 25 centil.				
	Demi, de 12½ id.				
Vin Blanc,	Demi, de 12½ id.				
	Entières, de 25 id.				
Viande Crue,	Trois quarts de 40 decag.				
	Demi, de 26 id.				
	Id. côtelette, de 26 id.				
	Quart, de 14 id.				
Bouillon gras,	Portion, de 50 centil.				
Riz au Bouillon,	Portion, de 5 decag.				
Legumes,	Id. de 50 centil.				
Bouillies Lait,	Id. de 50 id.				
Farine.	Id. de 6 decag.				
Pruneaux,	Pieces.				
Œufs,	Pieces.				

TABLE II.—*Hospital of Berne.*

Table of Diet for Ward, No ——						Extra.
No. of Patients.	Spare Diet	Half Portion,		Entire Portion,		
		without Wine.	with Wine.	without Wine.	with Wine.	

Spare Diet : 3 soups; at midday at most a little fruit.
Half Portion : 3 soups; midday, vegetables; evening, fruit.
Whole Portion : 3 soups; midday, vegetables and meat; evening, pannado (brey) or fruit.
The portion of meat is one-half pound of roasted veal or beef.
The portion of bread is one pound.
The portion of wine is one-eighth of a quart (maas.)
The soup is made by turns with oats, rice, barley, &c.

TABLE III.—*Hospital of Padua.*

Rilievo delle Diete ordinate nella visita del giorno.

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Alla Salla. Malat alla visita, { Febricitant. No / Piagat. No }

Denominazione delle Diete.	No delle Diete pei		Totale delle Diete.	Qualità di Cibo.		Quantità per Cadauno.
	Febricitanti.	Piagati.				
Austera.				Brodi, . . .		No 4.
1a.				Broettino alla matina,		1
				Panata con uovo a Pranzo,		Onc. 1
				Id. id. a Cena,		1
				Uova comprese nelle panate e Broettino,		3
2da.				Pane in Brodo alla matina,		Onc. 1 quart. 3½
				Pane in Brodo,		1d.
				Vitello,		1½
				Pane bollito,		1d.
				Uova		No 1
3a.				Pane in Brodo alla matina,		Onc. 1 quart. 3½
				Riso,	Pranzo,	2
				Manzo,		1½
				Pane,		1 quart. 3½
				Vino,		Bicchier. ½
				Pane bollito,	Cena,	Onc. 1½
				Manzo,		1
				Pane,		1 quart. 3½
				Vino,		Bicchier. ½
4ta.				Riso,	Pranzo,	Onc. 2
				Manzo,		1½
				Pane,		3 quart. 3
				Vino,		Bicchier. quart. 3
				Pane bollito,	Cena,	Onc. 1½
				Manzo,		1
				Pane,		3 qu. 3
				Vino,		Bicch. qu. 3
Di sortita.				Pane,	Pranzo,	Onc. 7½
				Riso,		2
				Manzo,		1½
				Vino.		Bicch. qu. 3
Totale delle Diete.				Vino per medicina, { Febricitanti lb. / Piagati,		
Total complessivo,						

Straordinarj.

Il medico assistente.
Il chirurgo assistente.

The diet-table of the Berlin General Hospital is the most complete and diversified that is to be met with; indeed it is so extensive that it is impossible to transcribe it here. The portions are *entire*, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$; and the allowance of bread and meat for each of these is very nearly as follows:

Entire,	Brown bread,	lb. $1\frac{1}{2}$
	Meat,	lb. $\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{3}{4}$	White bread,	lb. 1
	Meat,	lb. $\frac{1}{4}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	White bread,	lb. $\frac{1}{2}$
	Meat,	lb. $\frac{1}{4}$
$\frac{1}{4}$	A particular kind of bread, (*semmel*)	oz. 3
	Meat,	—
$\frac{1}{8}$	Three times a-day a portion of beef-tea made from $\frac{1}{4}$ of a pound of beef.	

Vegetables of every description, both fresh and dried, are given, so that there is a considerable variety of food. In addition to which the medical attendants may order any luxury to such of the sick as require it; as, for example, wine, brandy, tea, coffee, various better soups, fruits, and meat dressed in different ways. The ordinary drink is beer, but of this there is no fixed portion; the quantity is left to the discretion of the medical attendant. Women with children at the breast may be allowed something in addition to the ordinary house-diet.

The inmates of this hospital may, upon the payment of a small additional sum, get their food from the tables of the household of the establishment.

The following is a table of the diet of the Edinburgh Infirmary:

1.—FEVER-DIET.

General Allowance for twenty-four Hours.

A mutchkin of milk-gruel or thin milk-pottage, or a mutchkin of thin flummery, made of boiled ground rice and milk, or a small quantity of oat-meal porridge and milk. Six or eight ounces of bread-panada, or toast and water. Drink,—Barley-water, common gruel, butter-milk, &c.

2.—ORDINARY LOW DIET.

Breakfast.—A mutchkin of porridge, or 5¼ ounces of finest bread, and 3 gills of milk, or one mutchkin butter-milk or beer.

Dinner.—A chopin of broth and 5¼ ounces of bread.

Supper.—The same as breakfast.

Beef-tea according to prescription.

3.—ORDINARY FULL DIET.

The same as low diet in all respects, excepting that on three days of the week, viz. Monday, Thursday, and Saturday, there is an addition of half a pound of beef boiled in the broth, or half a pound of beef-steak.

N. B.—Additional allowance of bread and porridge means a mutchkin and half of porridge and seven ounces of bread.

A *daily* bit of meat is four ounces of beef boiled in the broth.

Meat daily means half a pound each day.

The physicians and surgeons have full power to increase the quantities of ordinary food for individual patients, when either their natural appetites or maladies require it; and likewise to order whatever other articles they may deem necessary for particular cases.

The diet of the Glasgow Infirmary, taken from the matron's books, is,

FOR DINNER.—*Men.*

Full diet.—Four ounces of boiled beef, bread, and broth.

Middle diet.—Broth and bread.

BREAKFAST AND SUPPER.

Porridge with sour milk, except when tea or sweet milk or sowens are ordered.

The quartern-loaf cut into ten pieces; one piece forms a portion of bread.

A beef-steak, four ounces.

One bottle of beer is an allowance.

One ounce of butter do.

Three ounces of cheese do.

Cheese is given instead of beef on Saturday and Sunday; potato-soup on Wednesday.

FEMALE PATIENT DIET.

Same as the above, only the quartern-loaf is cut into 12 portions; 3 ounces form an allowance of beef, and 2 ounces an allowance of cheese.

There is also LOW DIET; and the physicians and surgeons have an unbounded power of prescribing every description of food or wine. Doubts have been entertained concerning the propriety of allowing cheese; but the practice is still continued, in consequence of the reiterated and unvaried request of the patients.

Before quitting the subject of diet in sick-hospitals, it will be proper to give the table of regimen in the *Hôpital des Vénériens*, as it differs in some respects from that of the others:—

Entire portion.—One chopin of milk, one pound four ounces of white bread, one chopin of broth, ten ounces of meat dressed.

¾ portion.—One chopin of milk, fifteen ounces of bread, one chopin of broth, seven ounces of dressed meat.

½ portion.—One chopin of milk, ten ounces of bread, one pint and one chopin of broth, five ounces of meat.

¼ portion.—One chopin of milk, five ounces of bread, one pint and one chopin of broth, three ounces of meat.

After the consideration of the nature of hospital-regimen, it will now be proper to give some idea of the average expense incurred for the maintenance of each individual. As the diet forms the principal item in that expense, it is in the present place that it falls to be treated of with most convenience.

Every year the general council, under the approbation of the minister of the interior, regulates the amount of annual expenditure, and a commission from its body examines into the works necessary to be accomplished, and the nature and extent of the supplies required.

As far as the General Council is concerned, the hospital-supplies are conducted with a very considerable degree of liberality; and the principle acted upon seems to be, that it is better not to have a thing at all than to have it bad. As one member of the commission, and author of an excellent work on the hospitals of Paris, says, it is not the denominative value of an expense incurred which renders it more or less dear, but its relation with the advantage procured,—with the benefit produced. If the same sum can do more good to the patients, or diminish the mortality, it is evident that in reality the expense is less.

In calculating the average price of maintenance for one person in an hospital for the space of 24 hours, it is necessary to adopt a certain formula. This is to divide the total sum of the annual expenditure of any hospital by the number of days the beds have been occupied during the course of the

year; or, as the French term it, by the *Journées des Malades.* Thus, for example, the total expenditure of the Hôtel Dieu for the year 1822 being 586,867 francs (£23,475), this sum divided by the number of *Journées,* 290,941, will give, as the average daily expense of each individual in it, very nearly 2 francs 1 cent (1s. 8d.) Carrying a similar calculation through the other sick-hospitals, we find the mean daily expense in the Charité for 1821, 2 francs 9 cents; of the Pitié, 1 franc 63 cents; of Necker, 2 francs 10 cents; Cochin, 1 franc 67 cents; Beaujon, 1 franc 80 cents; St Antoine, 1 franc 69 cents; St Louis, 1 franc 67 cents; Des Vénériens, 1 franc 36 cents; being an average for these nine hospitals of 1 franc 73 cents. These sums, of course, must vary more or less from year to year, according to the state of the market, and any unforeseen or accidental circumstances that may entail expense on the establishments.*

The average expense of each person during his

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* There exist in the *Département de la Seine Inférieure* 20 establishments bearing the name of hospitals and hospices. During the year 1822, the number of *Journées de Malades* was for these 637,790, and the average daily expense, 1 franc ·057. In the Hôtel Dieu of Rouen it averaged as high as 1 franc 25, while in the Hospice of Neufchâtel it was no more than 0 franc ·50. The number of *Journées de Vieillards d'Infirmes, et d'Enfans,* was 808,993, and the daily expense for each 0 franc ·966; in the general hospital of Rouen it was 1 franc ·68; while in Neufchâtel only 0 franc ·50.—Vid. *Ann. du Départ. de la Seine Inférieure.*

stay in an hospital is known by ascertaining, in the first place, the mean term of that stay. This is done in two ways, which give results very nearly the same:—First, by dividing the total number of days by the number of individuals discharged and dead; or, what is much the same, by the number of persons existing in the hospital at the beginning of the year, added to the total number of persons entered during the year, *minus* those remaining in the hospital at the close of the year. Thus, for example, the number of inmates existing in the Hôtel Dieu on the 1st January, 1822, was 840, and the number entered during the year 10,689; subtract from the joint sum of these two numbers 763, being the number of persons remaining in the hospital on the 31st December, 1822, and there remain 10,766. Let 290,941, the number of *Journées des Malades*, be divided by this sum, and there will remain a mean sum of 27 and a small fraction. The average expense of each person, or the sum he costs to the administration during his stay, is rather more than 54 francs (£2 : 3 : 4). It is quite clear, that the average period of stay must differ in different hospitals, according to their destination; thus, those of St Louis and Des Vénériens, from the chronic nature of the maladies treated in them, give, the former an average of 60, the latter of 66 days; the average cost of each person, of course, is proportionally greater. The mean term of stay in the nine sick-hospitals for the year 1822, without counting fractional parts, was 37 days, and the mean ex-

pence 64 francs (£2 : 11 : 8). The mean annual expense of each bed for the same year was 652 francs (£36).

It is a remarkable circumstance, and one deserving of considerable attention, that the mean term of stay in sick-hospitals has been gradually diminishing of late years. This speaks much in favour of the present system, and proves incontestably the advantage of the meliorations and improvements that have been successively introduced by the administration.

In casting a glance to the sick-population of hospitals of other towns, a great variety will be found in the mean term of stay. Thus, for example, in Strasbourg, there existed, on the 1st January, 1826, 449 sick inmates; this, added to the number entered during the year, which was 2867, gives a total of 3316. Abstract from this the number of sick remaining on the 31st December, 1826, or 504, and there are left 2812; by which quotient the total number of days (*Journées des Malades*), 179,212, being divided, there remain 63 days for the average period of stay, being very much more than double that of the Hôtel Dieu of Paris. This certainly appears a most startling disparity; but, at the same time, the comparison is not quite fair; for the latter hospital only receives acute diseases, while the former receives diseases of every description, both acute and chronic; of which the chronic preponderate, from the number of aged persons admitted. Still, the average is much higher than can be altogether accounted for by such an explanation, and it may be allowed, therefore, to draw the in-

ference, that an inferior system of management, combined with other causes, makes the mean term of treatment longer than in the hospitals of the capital. The same causes that have been already alluded to as influencing the mortality of hospitals, render it impossible to employ the average length of treatment, to which the inmates are subjected, as a correct means of ascertaining the character of one hospital-establishment in comparison with another. But, in directing our attention to one hospital, the nature and extent of improvement may be well judged of from the diminution in the mean term of stay.

In stating the daily expense of hospital-inmates, it is necessary to consider, at the same time, what are the articles which enter into this expense. In rating the average daily expense in all the sick-hospitals of Paris at 1 fr. 73 cent., it must not be supposed that the simple maintenance of each individual amounts to such a sum. Were this the case, the estimate would be a very high one; but every species of expenditure entailed forms an item in the charge, whether it be improvements or repairs in the buildings, cost of administration, or any other description of expense.

Thus, for nourishment and medical treatment, the daily average cost is about 80 centimes (eightpence), whilst the following items swell this sum to nearly two francs (20 pence):

	fr.	cent.
Repairs, &c. for buildings,	0	18
Cost of administration,	0	20
Expense of heating,	0	14

	fr.	cent.
Furnishing (*mobilies*), . .	0	28
Additional casual expenses, .	0	10

It is very necessary to mention these circumstances; because, if it were supposed that we were stating merely the ordinary expense of maintenance, the average given would certainly appear very high; especially when it is considered, that, in general, the necessaries of life are obtained at a cheaper rate in France than in Great Britain.

Some effect on the amount of expenditure is, of course, to be looked for from the difference in the market-price of the commodities forming the supplies of sick-hospitals. It therefore will be proper in this place to give some idea of the prices paid by the administration for these supplies for the year 1822; which year has given the average of 1 fr. 73 cent. By these means a comparison may be instituted between France and England, which will not fail to prove highly interesting.

For some of the articles about to be mentioned it may be observed, that the price varied according as there were different qualities, and according as the market-price varied, when they were, of necessity, furnished at different periods; in the following table the medium will always be kept. In the hospital-reports, the new measures and quantities are adhered to. In reducing these to English standard, it must be again remembered, that the kilogramme is equivalent to 2lbs. 5 dr. 36 gr. old French weight,=2 lbs. 3 oz. 5 dr. avoirdupois weight; the litre of liquids to about $\frac{1}{16}$th more than a Paris pint,

=2,1133 English wine-measure. By multiplying the price of the kilogramme by 0,4895, that of the French pound is obtained; and by multiplying the price of the French pound by 2,0429, that of the kilogramme is obtained:—

		fr.	cent.	mil.
*Flour, first quality,	sack,	46	14	0
Bread, ditto,	kilo.	25	58	0
Meat,	kilo.	0	69	0
Fresh vegetables,	kilo.	0	09	66
Potatoes,	kilo.	0	03	25
Rice (Carolina),	kilo.	0	54	0
Milk,	litre,	0	25	0
Sugar,	kilo.	2	40	0
Candles,	kilo.	1	35	0
Oil, best quality,	kilo.	1	37	50
Ipecacuanha,	kilo.	28	0	0
Jalap,	kilo.	4	80	0
Rhubarb (China),	kilo.	14	0	0
Ditto (Muscovy),	kilo.	24	0	0
Quinquina (grey),	kilo.	17	50	0
Ditto (yellow),	kilo.	8	0	0
Ditto (red)	kilo.	26	0	0

By comparing the price of the commodities mentioned in this table with similar commodities in other countries, and observing, at the same time, the average daily expenditure of the hospital-establishments, we are enabled to discover how far

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* The contract-prices in the year 1828 for one or two articles of consumpt furnished to Heriot's Hospital, Edinburgh, were as follow:—

	s.	d.
Bread, per peck-loaf,	2	6
Butcher-meat, per stone,	3	11
per pound,	0	3¼ 1/10
Sweet milk, per Scotch pint,	0	3
Oatmeal, per boll of 140 lbs.	17	6

the difference observable in these averages depends on the price of the materials of household-consumpt.

Every comparison of this sort is valuable; it opens the eyes of the administrators and of the public to abuse, and shows what improvements may be adopted, and how they ought to be introduced. It is very often by such means that abuse is first discovered; and it not unfrequently happens, that a system of household-management which has lasted for years, has, from some trifling circumstance leading to inquiry into the state of similar establishments, been then for the first time examined, and found to be insufficient.*

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* It may be proper to mention, that in those *communes* where there are no military hospitals, an *arreté* of the year 1800 orders, that sick soldiers shall be received into the civil hospitals, on the payment of a sum of money proportional to the period of their stay. If there be a military surgeon in the place, he is bound to attend the sick while in the hospital; but, at the same time, he is subject to the orders of the medical officers of the establishment. The minister of war pays the sum fixed by government to the civil hospitals. This cannot be less than 80 *centimes*, nor more than 1 *franc* a-day. If the sick person be an officer, 75 *centimes* daily in addition are paid. Every soldier received into a civil hospital must present a billet, containing his age, name, surname, rank, place of birth, and department. It must be signed by the officer commanding the company or detachment, the quarter-master, and the surgeon. The surgeon must also give a slight sketch of the nature of the patient's disease, and of any mode of treatment already employed.—Vide *Arreté du Gouvernement du* 1. *Decembre*, 1803; *Circulaire du Ministre du* 19. *Août*, 1807; *Ordonnance du Roi, du* 29. *Novembre*, 1814.

CHAPTER VII.

HOSPICES FOR INDIGENT AND INCURABLE PERSONS.—RULES OF ADMISSION.—DIET.—OUT-PENSIONERS.

IN the preceding chapter, the sick-hospitals of Paris, strictly so named, that is to say, the *Hôpitaux* of the French, were treated of. The rest of the charitable establishments are known by the term *Hospices*,* a word, which, in English, may be translated both hospital and poor's-house, for they partake of the characters, more or less, of one or both of these. Thus there are hospices, to make use of the French term, which deserve in some measure to be named hospitals, as they admit persons in a state of disease; but the diseases that are received are of a

* The name of *Hospice* was first given to the small hospitals attached to certain parishes of Paris; the most ancient of which was that founded in 1683, in the parish of Saint Méry, by the *Curé* M. Viennet. This name also was given in the convents of the cloistered Hospitallers to the wards in which poor sick women were received. In many cases it has now entirely usurped the name of hospital; but physicians still justly distinguish the *hospital* in which the sick are treated from the *hospice* reserved for old age and infancy.—Vid. *Hist. de l'Adminis. de Secours Publics, &c. par M. Dupin*, p. 11.

peculiar nature, being in general the results of palsy, or injuries of the members. They are therefore incurable, and being little benefited by medical treatment, are confined to particular establishments. There the inmates are admitted, not as patients to claim medical aid, but as persons who, precluded from labouring for their subsistence, have right to the charity of those who administer the revenues of the poor.

Hospices are divisible into those for old persons, as the Salpétrière and Bicêtre; those for incurables, named Hospices des Incurables (*hommes et femmes*); those for children, as the Hospices des Enfans Trouvés and des Orphelins; lastly, into those establishments which are on a better footing with respect to internal comforts, and into which only those are admitted who can afford to pay a certain sum of money to defray in part the expense of their maintenance. In the French hospital-reports the Hospice d'Accouchement and the Hôpital des Enfans Malades are included among the sick-hospitals. It appears, however, a better plan to conjoin them with the other establishments connected with childhood; the consideration of which is to form the subject of a future and separate chapter.

The two great establishments in Paris for the aged are, the Salpétrière and Bicêtre, or, as they are also termed, *Hospices de la Vieillesse* (*hommes et femmes*). Both are admirably situated; the former, which is destined for females, on the new Boulevards, behind the Jardin des Plantes; the latter

for males, in the *commune* of Gentilly, and very near Paris. The site on which the Salpêtrière stands was given by Louis XIV. to the Hospital General, by letters patent, dated 1656. The persons who gained their bread by begging had at that period become so numerous and so disorderly, that it was found necessary to adopt measures to diminish an evil that was rapidly increasing. For the space of 24 years that class of persons was alone received into this new establishment; but at last a declaration of the 23d March, 1680, ordered that poor children, aged persons of both sexes, and epileptics, who had no means of gaining a livelihood, should also be admitted. Towards the period of the Revolution the *Code de l'Hôpital Général* and the excellent Memoirs of Tenon show that the population of this great hospital was not much short of 8000, composed as follows:—Pregnant women, married and unmarried, nurses with infants at the breast, boys from the age of 7 or 8 months up to 4 or 5 years, girls of all ages, aged men and women, lunatics, idiots, epileptic and paralytic persons, the blind, the lame, the incurable. In the centre of the hospital was a house of correction, divided into four compartments, for different descriptions of criminals.

The Bicêtre, or hospice for indigent old men, was originally a place of royal residence, the founder of which was a bishop of Winchester. It was at one time intended to convert it into a retreat for soldiers worn out or grown old in service; but the foundation of the Hôtel des Invalides caused this destination

to be altered, and it then became what it now is, a refuge for the indigent. At the period when the General Council took the Bicêtre under its charge, it presented, like the Salpétrière before the Revolution, a population of the most heterogeneous description;—healthy persons, lunatics, idiots, children, and persons afflicted with palsay, blindness, epilepsy, syphilis, scrofula, and incurable diseases, were all crowded together without distinction of age or infirmity. The council set to work immediately to remedy this confusion; and it was done principally by forming regulations as to admission, by sending the children to the orphan-hospital, particular maladies to the hospitals specially destined for them; and, in fine, classing those that did remain according to the nature of their infirmities, in separate buildings, or different parts of the same building. At the beginning of the century, the Bicêtre was, as may be gathered from the Memoir of M. de Pastoret, in a most wretched state of internal management. The beds contained in general two and often four persons, while those who had a bed to themselves paid a sum of 150 francs. There was a constant state of quarrelling and dispute; and many of the beds were so miserably appointed, that those intended for two persons would scarcely contain two; it frequently happened, therefore, that they had to occupy the bed alternate nights. Round the beds, and in every corner of the wards, were scattered the wretched household-apparatus of the poor; and the collection of every sort of filth rendered it

almost impossible to draw breath in an atmosphere tainted with every species of corruption. A great deal more might be said of the miserable state both of this establishment and of the Salpêtrière previous to the time of the Revolution; as, however, almost all the hospital-establishments of Paris were more or less under the same bad management, what has been already said at the commencement of this work will be sufficient to make their previous state known.

The Hospices des Incurables, the two other considerable establishments for the indigent of Paris, formed originally only one; at present they are separate, and are situated, the one for females in the Rue de Sevres, Faubourg St Germain, the other for males in the Rue Faubourg St Martin. The former was established by letters patent of Louis XIII., in the year 1637. Its foundation was due to the combined charity of the Cardinal de la Rochefoucauld, Madame le Bret, and a good priest named Joulet de Chatillon. It was always a favourite object of public attention, so much so, that in the year 1788 its revenues amounted to 370,000 livres (£14,800); and as the number admitted was only 430, this gave an average of 860 francs (£34, 8s.) a-year, or 47 sous (1s. 11½d.) a-day for each individual. The cost of founding a bed was as high as 10,500 livres (£450). The other Hospice (*des Incurables Hommes*) received its present destination in the year 1802; previous to that period it served another purpose, admitting then persons of both sexes.

Such are the four principal establishments for the poor and infirm of Paris. With respect to their household-establishment, (*régime interne,*) much, and indeed all that has been already said when treating of hospitals more particularly, is applicable to hospices, and upon this head there will be no need of repetition. It is the regulations peculiar to the above hospices that are to be considered; and it will be right to commence by giving an extract from the official directions published by authority on that head.

" The hospices of the Bicêtre for men, and the Salpétrière for women, are destined for the reception of indigent persons who have completed their 70th year; for lunatics, and for persons afflicted with epilepsy and cancer. As in the other hospitals, those persons only are admitted who are domiciliated in Paris, or in the *ressort* of the department of the Seine.

" The Hospices des Incurables of the Rue Faubourg St Martin, and of the Rue de Sevres, Faubourg St Germain, are destined to receive indigent persons deprived of the use of some of their members, or afflicted with some long-standing incurable malady, rendering them unfit for labour.

" The admissions are filled up as they become vacant by the different public bodies or individuals who have the right of nomination; and that member of the commission charged with these establishments must give information of the vacancies, which must be filled up within the period of two months.

" The acts of presentation, or, in other words, demands for admittance, must be sent to the same member, that he may see they contain all the requisite conditions demanded by the hospital-regulations.

" These acts must be accompanied by a register of birth, a certificate from a *Bureau de Bienfaisance*, proving the applicant's state of indigence, a certificate of good conduct, and, as far as that is possible, another certificate, showing that his children or grandchildren, if he has any, are not in a condition to maintain him. To obtain this last piece of information, the presidents of the bureaux of charity, or the *maires* of the different *communes* of the department, must communicate with the children; and their answer to these communications must be attached to the act of presentation. A certificate from the *Bureau Central* also is necessary before obtaining admission into an hospice."

As preliminary to being admitted into any of the above establishments, every person must be inscribed in the registers of the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance.*

The age requisite for admission is 70 years completed, in cases where there exists no bodily infirmity; but so advanced an age is not required when afflicted with any of the following maladies:

1. Long-continued palsy.
2. Trembling of the body or limbs.
3. Incontinence of urine or fœces.

4. Internal aneurisms.

5. Cancers, old ulcers, severe herniæ incapable of reduction.

6. Blindness, and other incurable diseases of the eye that impair vision.

7. Deformities of the feet and hands, mutilation of the members.

8. Inveterate dropsy, violent and habitual asthma, and other maladies that render labour impossible.

Every person upon admission is bound to declare, that he does not possess above 150 francs (£6) of annual receipt; if he has, the surplus goes to the hospital-funds; if he conceals the truth, he is liable to be dismissed.

The nomination to vacant places in the hospices rests entirely with certain public bodies, or with those individuals who have founded beds, or who have succeeded to the property of the founders.

In founding a bed, as it is termed, the founder may either pay a fixed sum at first, or continue to pay an annual sum, which in the Salpétrière and Bicêtre is 500 francs, (£20,) and in the Hospices des Incurables 400 (£16.) Should the revenues of these establishments, however, prove insufficient to meet their expenses, the proprietors of these beds are liable to be called upon to make up their share of the deficiency.

For some years previous to 1776, considerable abuse had existed in the distribution of the beds;

they became a matter almost of regular traffic, being frequently bought and sold. At last this went so far as to attract public notice; and, in a deliberation ratified by the parliament of Paris, regulations were adopted, which imposed the penalty of the loss of rights, both to the buyer and seller, should it be proved that venal transactions had taken place.

The bureaux of charity, the clergy and various public bodies, have a certain number of nominations, which they fill up in conformity to the laws of the general council and the formalities required. No person can be admitted without these formalities, (*par urgence,*) with the exception of such as are blind or above 80 years of age. Any house-governor contravening this order is liable to be removed.

The friends and relations of the inmates are allowed to visit them at certain hours and under certain restrictions, but are not permitted to carry any thing into the house with them. The inmates themselves are granted free exit, for the whole day, three times a month; but, on such occasions, should any one chance to be found begging in the streets or neighbourhood of Paris, he is immediately arrested and conveyed, for a longer or shorter period, to the depôt for vagrants, (*Depôt de Mendicité et Vagabondage*) at St Denis. Both in going out and coming in they are searched by the household-authorities, lest they should carry any thing with them, a practice which is strictly forbidden. Every inmate of these hospices is required to

be in bed by a certain hour, and to be up by six o'clock in summer and seven in winter. During the day he is on no account, except from very great age or infirmity, permitted to occupy his bed; and he is required to have every article he may possess put away in the conveniences the establishment affords him.

In the year 1813 the council of the hospices formed a number of workshops, where different branches of industry might be carried on. In the Bicêtre every person who is able for it is obliged to work; great age and great infirmity can alone give exemption; and such as refuse may be forced to quit the house. The stouter classes are employed in making articles of furniture for the establishment itself; others receive work from persons in Paris; and the number employed in this way is very considerable. Such as are thus engaged in working, for persons not connected with the establishment, are allowed to go out once a-week for the purpose of carrying home what has been intrusted to them: they are under the *surveillance* of an inspector, appointed for the purpose, who keeps a register of whatever is done, and they receive a certain sum from the administration, which, though it varies, may be averaged at fifteen centimes (three halfpence) daily.

It has been already shown how much the administration, the internal service of the household, and the personal state of the inmates has been attended to of late years. The change in every respect is striking; cleanliness, once so little thought of, is

now absolutely required; since 1802 each bed has been furnished with five pairs of sheets, and each individual with five shirts; there is, in consequence, a thorough change of clothing at regular intervals; and the effect has been as marked upon the health as upon the comfort of the inmates. The diet, too, which, previous to the Revolution, was scanty and indifferent, is now abundant, and of good quality; the bread is no longer brown; and the fast-days (*jours maigres*), from being four in the week, are now reduced to two. The regimen now is as follows, and there is contrasted with it the state of the regimen as it was in 1786:—

	BICÊTRE.	IN 1786.
Bread,	20 oz. (white).	20 oz. (brown).
Wine, To all under 70 years of age,	⅛ of a pint.	Nothing.
Wine, From 70 to 80,	¼ ditto.	¼ of a pint.
Wine, From 80 to 85,	⅜ ditto.	Ditto.
Wine, Above 85,	½ ditto.	Ditto.
Soup,	½ a pint.	¼ of a pint.
Meat,	8 ounces.	4 ounces.
Vegetables to supper,	6 ounces.	Nothing.

In the Salpétrière, the rations of food are much the same as in the Bicêtre; the quantity of bread is less by 2 ounces. In both establisliments, idiots, and persons afflicted with epilepsy, receive an additional quantity of food; the men have 28, the women 21 ounces of bread; the former also have 2 ounces more of butcher-meat.

In the Hospices des Incurables, the rations, excepting bread, are rather larger; in other respects the food is the same.

The population of the four hospices for the aged and infirm is as follows :— .

Salpétrière, - - -	5400
Bicêtre, - - - -	3100
H. des Incurables (men), - -	461
Ditto (women), - -	522
Total,	8583

Of the inmates of the two first, between one-fourth and one-third are lunatics and idiots. Of these some notice shall be taken hereafter, when speaking of the state of lunatics in France in general.

The average cost, per day, of each individual in the above hospices, was, for the year 1822,—

In the Salpétrière, - -	69 cent.	85	d.
In the Bicêtre, - -	81	56	
In the H. des Inc. (men),	1 fr.	24	—
Ditto (women),	1	13	—

Being an average for them all of 97 cent. 41, or 10d. English money.*

* The average number of daily inmates, and the average annual expense of each individual in the West-Kirk Charity

The mortality for the same year was,

In the Salpétrière, - - -	1 in $8\frac{45}{100}$
In the Bicêtre, - - - -	1 in $7\frac{75}{100}$
In the Incurables (men), - -	1 in $6\frac{75}{100}$
Ditto (women), - -	1 in $11\frac{7}{100}$

It is much to be regretted, that the system of pensioning out the indigent and infirm is not in more general practice than it is. That in general the poor themselves are inclined to prefer this species of retreat there seems every reason for supposing: there are very few who do not feel a repugnance at entering an hospital, and a desire to be independent of it. M. Degerando, in his work entitled *Le Visiteur du Pauvre*, mentions, in proof of this, that in the Hospital des Quinze-Vingts, though many inmates desire to be out-pensioners, the contrary rarely occurs. And yet in this establishment the inmates, besides being supplied with the ordinary wants of life, receive one franc a-day for themselves, half a franc for their wives, and 25 centimes for each

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Workhouse, Edinburgh, for several years, were as follows:—

From 1st August to 1st August.

	No of inmates.	Ann. exp. of each.
1822 to 1823, - -	429, - -	£6 18 $10\frac{1}{2}$
1823 1824, - -	438, - -	7 13 $7\frac{1}{4}$
1824 1825, - -	450, - -	7 15 $4\frac{3}{4}$
1825 1826, - -	445, - -	8 5 $3\frac{3}{4}$
1827 1828, - -	483, - -	7 10 $3\frac{1}{2}$
Average for the 5 years,	447, - -	7 12 $8\frac{1}{8}$

of their children; the out-pensioners only receive 250 francs a-year. There is no inducement, in a pecuniary point of view, therefore, to the preference they show.

In the hospices of Paris, the system of pensioning is to a certain extent adopted, but it is complained that sufficient encouragement is not given to it. A *reglement* of the 10th October, 1801, laid down various instructions relative to what are termed representative pensions (*pensions représentatives*).

By an *arreté*, of date 1821, these are accorded only to such persons as have been three consecutive years in an hospice. This appears a bad regulation, and must act altogether as a check upon the system. In fact, after remaining three years in an hospice, an individual becomes accustomed to the life he there leads, and thinks it not worth his while to leave it at his advanced age; the pension, therefore, can hold out to him no temptation. To a person, on the contrary, just entered, or just about to enter, it will hold out a strong inducement, and will, in many cases, be taken advantage of. There is in Paris, also, too little attention paid to encourage families coming forward and offering to take charge of the aged and infirm. These circumstances have the effect of rendering the number of those who seek pensions very small. The circumstance is much to be regretted, as the extension of the system would be attended with great benefit to all parties. It would, in many cases, prevent the separation of families, which is often occasioned by the younger

branches being unable, with all their exertions, to find means of maintaining the elder members, and being thus, from necessity, rather than from want of filial attention and kindness, forced to apply for their admission into an hospital. And, on the other hand, this system would admit of relief being administered extensively to deserving objects, without incurring the danger of crowding the establishment.

The representative pensions were fixed by an *arreté* of the General Council, in 1801, as follows:—

For persons actually inhabiting the Salpétrière and Bicêtre, 120 francs a-year.

For persons actually in the Hospices des Incurables, 180 francs a-year.

Or, in other words, the pension for healthy persons, who, perhaps, may be capable of doing some work, 120 francs; and for those totally unable, from diseases, to work, 60 francs more.* Out-pensioners always retain the right of returning to the hospice; their names are affixed to the beds allotted to them, and, provided they adhere to the regulations of the house, they may occupy them whenever they please.

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* Hints have been thrown out by several individuals as to the possibility and propriety, under many points of view, of pensioning old and infirm persons throughout the country, as orphans and foundlings are at present. It would be an immense saving of expense; for the maintenance of a man in the Hospices of the Departments is seldom more than half of what it is in the capital.

It is not very easy to state exactly the number of persons who take advantage of the pensioning-system; but, as far as can be gathered from the *compte sommaire* for the year 1822, that number was 363, and the total sum of money paid, 47,560 francs (£1902). Taking the number of persons entering in the space of one year at 2000, this would form a proportion of one to 5½. As already mentioned, the average daily expense of each individual in the hospices is about 97 centimes, or, as nearly as possible, 9½d.; this, multiplied by the number of days in the year, gives a mean sum of 354 francs (£14, 3s.) per annum for each individual, or 128,502 (£5140) for the 363 out-pensioners, had they remained in the hospices. There is, consequently, by this system a saving to the administration of 80,940 francs (£3238), not very much short of two-thirds.

To enter into any detail of the establishments of the provincial towns of France that may be termed hospices would be tedious. Many of them may, from the description of persons received into them, be termed poor's-houses, and as such will be noticed hereafter, when making a few remarks on the state of the poor in general throughout the kingdom.

The regulations of those which may more properly be named hospices are by no means so strict nor so systematic as those of the capital; nor, generally, are comfort and convenience so fully attended to in them. In these respects, however, there is great variety, depending very much on the character of the administration which directs them.

In the *Charité* at Lyons,* above 400 indigent persons are admitted, who have attained the age of 70. Their treatment is very good; they are permitted free exit every Thursday, and receive four meals a-day, consisting principally of soup, meat, vegetables, and a small quantity of wine. This hospice, however, is not reserved for aged persons alone; it also receives foundlings, orphans, and lying-in females. The *Charité* at Marseilles, in like manner, receives both aged persons and children. The number of the former, who must be 60 years old, may be averaged at 274; they, as well as the children, are occupied in different branches of industry required for the necessities of the house.

In the great hospital of Strasbourg, which, as already repeatedly mentioned, is an epitome of every variety of hospital-establishment, the poor, who are admitted *gratis*, are treated in a much inferior manner. They receive bread of the second quality (*pain bis*), and butcher-meat and beer only twice a-week. They are also forced to work, at first gra-

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* The hospice of La Charité, in Lyons, was accounted the best administered in the kingdom before the Revolution. It owed its origin to a famine that desolated the neighbourhood of that city, and which brought great numbers of persons from the country in a state of starvation. They were received kindly and well treated; and the archbishop and his chapter, joining with the richest citizens, by charitable exertions at that time (year 1531) founded this establishment,—at present one of the most extensive of the kind in France.

tuitously, but afterwards for a slight remuneration.*

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* In the year 1803, there existed 52 poor's-houses (*armenhäuser*) in the Russian towns and governments of Wilna, Kaluga, Kursk, Perm, and Podolien. Besides these, 51 district-poor's-houses (*distriktarmenhäuser*) for Christians and 2 for Jews, under the superintendence of the Chambers of Public Safety.—Vid. *Darstellung der Russischen Monarchie, u. s. v. von Wichmann.*

The great establishment at St Petersburg for the indigent, the incurable, octogenarians, and widows, is capable of containing 1400 persons. It is named the Bogodelnia, and the wards are clean and well-ventilated.—Vid. *Dr Granville's Tour*, v. ii. p. 289.

CHAPTER VIII.

HOSPICES FOR PAYING INMATES.—MAISONS DE SANTÉ.—ASYLUMS FOR THE BLIND, AND FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

AFTER the hospices, which are entirely *gratis*, that is to say, into which the inmates are received in an absolute state of penury, those hospices fall under consideration, in which such persons as are admitted must pay a certain sum of money. These, perhaps, are the most valuable institutions of the capital, and everything connected with them deserves particular notice.

It must not be supposed, because these institutions are named hospices, that they are, on that account, occupied by persons only who have walked the inferior paths of life. Far otherwise; many of their occupants have spent their previous lives in the most respectable situations. Commerce, the army and the navy, have each given their inmates; and when the internal and household management is described, it will be seen that they possess all that is necessary for spending the latter years of an active and laborious life in a moderate and respectable manner. They are not then hospices for the indigent; they are houses of retirement, where may be

obtained, at a moderate expense, the necessaries and comforts that could not be commanded without considerable expense in a private life. There are many persons who, after leading a laborious existence, would be glad of such a retirement.

No feeling of pride can interfere to prevent an individual from entering such an establishment as that of Sté Perine at Paris. He pays a full price for the comforts he receives; he has his own apartment, where he may be as retired as he pleases; the persons he meets with have, in all probability, been, like himself, actors in the more busy scenes of the world, and afford him the advantages of varied and pleasant society. His friends come to visit him, and he receives them in a good and comfortable apartment. Should he chance to be taken ill, he has the best medical attendance, and the greatest kindness from those appointed to take charge of the sick; and, as the infirmities of age grow upon him, he is sure of receiving all the attentions his state requires. He is not, as he might have been in another situation, exposed to the knavery of unprincipled persons, who might have been eager to take advantage of his forlorn state to rob and pillage him.

Were these establishments *gratis*, and admission to them given merely through interest and favour, they would not be attended with half the benefit which is now experienced from them. The characters of the inmates would then be very different. The tone of the whole establishment would be altered. The high-spirited would disdain the boon

of admission, and they would become, in short, nothing but a better description of alms or poor's house, and the man who had been accustomed to the independence of an active and industrious life would look down upon the advantages they held forth.

In France, perhaps, more than in any other country, are the hospices about to be described useful. Society is there so necessary to the enjoyment of life, that to be deprived of it is to be deprived of much that renders existence agreeable. To enjoy society, then, is, in some measure, to prolong existence; and certainly no one will dispute the rationality of the enjoyment. Previous to the Revolution, and, of course, previous to the destruction of convents and religious houses, persons, and, in particular, females, with small incomes, had many resources for passing their life comfortably which they do not now meet with. Widows, aged and infirm females, if they enjoyed even a very moderate yearly sum of money, were enabled to retire into these convents, to mingle with society, and be sure of a home for the remainder of their lives. The Revolution, therefore, deprived many persons of a species of retreat which was then frequently taken advantage of; and, since the restoration of the present order of things, these conventual houses have neither been so numerous nor so well endowed as to allow of their receiving inmates at the moderate rate they were wont to do. Could establishments, therefore, to remedy the deficiency thus cre-

ated be formed, in different parts of the country, they would be attended with great benefit; but as yet this has not been the case, and it is in the capital alone that institutions possessing the advantages which have been now alluded to are to be found. To make up in some measure for the want of them, many towns, it is true, have hospitals or hospices, into which persons are admitted upon paying a certain sum of money; but *gratis* inmates are received at the same time, which, of course, materially detracts from their comfort. It is in the capital alone that the most perfect specimens of establishments of the description pointed out are to be found, and it is to them, therefore, that the attention is now to be directed; and, whilst it is to be regretted that there do not exist more hospices, into which the old and infirm might retire upon the payment of ten, fifteen, or twenty pounds a-year, it must, at the same time, be permitted to give the full tribute of praise to those that do exist, and which, on various accounts, so highly merit it.

The three principal establishments of this description under the administration of the General Hospital Council are those of Ste Perine, Montrouge, and des Ménages, each of which possesses regulations peculiar to itself for the admission of inmates. That of Ste Perine is the most important, and was founded in the year 1801 by M. de Chaïlla; its internal management, however, was at first by no means deserving of credit; being, in fact, so very imperfect in many respects, that at last government

was forced to direct its attention to it. The consequence was, that commissioners were appointed to make inquiries into its real state; the result of which showed that the guarantees offered by the managers of the institution were most imperfectly kept. The managers, therefore, were dismissed, and an *arreté* of the minister of the interior, dated 13th November, 1807, directed the prefect of the Seine to take possession, in the name of the administration, of the civil hospices of Paris. At that period the price of admission was so inadequate to cover the expense, that during the first four years of the new administration there was a clear loss of 200,000 francs (£8000). According to the account given by M. le Marquis de Pastoret, when the general board took possession of Ste Perine in the year 1807, the debt of the establishment amounted to more than 430,000 francs (£17,200). Of persons then inmates there remained in the year 1813 the number of 104, who had furnished a capital of 206,556 francs (£8262). Of these, 30 died by the 1st January, 1814, and extinguished by their death a capital of 63,470 francs (£2539). The original debt, then, in 1814, was reduced by 292,655 francs (£11,706), or to 140,000 (£5600). Since that period many improvements and alterations have been made in the buildings. These have entailed a considerable expense; but this expense was indispensable, and it has been cheaply purchased by the additional comforts obtained.

The institution of Ste Perine is situated in the

Grande Rue à Chaillot, in a pleasant position, at a very short distance from the *Champs Elysées*, and not far from the *Bois de Boulogne*. It is especially consecrated to the reception of persons of either sex, who have attained the age of 60. Upon admission they must engage to pay an annual sum of 600 francs (£24); or, should they prefer it, they may buy up the annuity. In the latter case, the capital to be paid is calculated on the presumed value of the payer's life; and in the following table is given a decreasing series of capitals, which must be paid at all ages between 60 and 102 years, to redeem an annuity of 600 francs:—*

Ages.	Capitals in francs.	Capitals in English money.	Ages.	Capitals in francs.	Capitals in English money.	Ages.	Capitals in francs.	Capitals in English money.
60	5269	219 10 10	75	3138	130 15 0	90	2196	91 10 0
61	5123	213 9 2	76	3014	125 11 8	91	2151	89 12 6
62	4976	207 6 8	77	2897	120 14 2	92	2103	87 12 6
63	4830	201 5 0	78	2785	116 0 10	93	2036	84 16 8
64	4683	195 2 6	79	2682	111 15 0	94	1959	81 12 6
65	4535	188 19 2	80	2590	107 18 4	95	1811	75 9 2
66	4388	182 16 8	81	2511	104 12 6	96	1674	69 15 0
67	4243	176 16 10	82	2456	102 8 4	97	1578	65 15 0
68	4096	170 13 4	83	2430	101 5 0	98	1473	61 7 6
69	3955	168 19 2	84	2402	100 1 8	99	1305	54 7 6
70	3810	158 15 0	85	2380	99 3 4	100	1205	50 4 2
71	3670	152 19 2	86	2350	97 18 4	101	1050	43 15 0
72	3534	147 5 0	87	2317	96 10 10	102	800	33 6 8
73	3397	141 10 10	88	2280	95 0 0			
74	3266	136 1 8	89	2238	93 5 0			

As there are many persons in certain situations of life, as, for example, in public offices, who, from

* In this table, as well as in the following, the reduction of French into English money is made at the rate of 24 francs to the pound sterling; in all other cases, as already mentioned, it is made at the rate of 25 francs to the pound sterling.

the smallness of their incomes, have it not in their power to save a sufficient sum of money to enable them to buy admission into this establishment at the age of 60, when they may wish to retire, every individual who may choose to ensure his admission at that age is permitted to subscribe from the age of 40, or even earlier. When this is done, the amount of annuity to be paid is calculated upon a double basis,—the value of the individual's life, and of the capital which otherwise would have been paid upon admission at the age of 60. Instead of paying an annuity, he has it in his choice to pay a fixed capital, the amount of which is calculated upon the same basis; or he may pay up part of the capital, and allow the rest to remain in form of annuity. Subscriptions may be received at an earlier age than 40; but, as this very seldom occurs, the calculations are made at the time of application.

The following table presents the amount of annuities and capitals to be paid by subscribers of all ages, from 40 to 60, to ensure a free admission at the latter age:—

AGES.	Annuities.					Capitals.				
	francs.	cents.	£	s.	d.	francs.	cents.	£	s.	d.
40	101	90	4	4	11	1148	0	47	16	8
41	111	80	4	13	2	1229	0	51	4	2
42	123	0	5	2	6	1315	90	54	16	7
43	135	80	5	13	6	1409	75	58	14	9½
44	150	15	6	5	1½	1511	20	62	19	4
45	166	65	6	18	10½	1625	35	67	14	5½
46	185	85	7	14	10½	1754	90	73	2	5
47	208	10	8	13	5	1837	65	76	11	4½
48	234	65	9	15	6½	2008	0	83	13	4
49	265	65	11	1	4½	2159	65	89	19	8½
50	303	0	12	12	6	2325	65	96	18	0½
51	348	35	14	10	3½	2505	85	104	9	0½
52	407	50	16	19	7	2706	10	112	15	1
53	479	75	19	19	9½	2923	50	121	16	3
54	574	0	23	18	4	3218	70	134	2	3
55	698	50	29	1	1	3428	0	142	16	8
56	878	0	36	11	8	3721	30	155	1	1
57	1147	75	47	16	5	4047	60	168	13	0
58	1609	75	67	1	5½	4409	70	183	14	9
59	2513	75	104	14	9½	4815	30	200	12	9
60										

Before being admitted into the institution of Ste Perine, every person must bring sufficient proof of his ability to pay his annuity; and as no fire-wood, candles, nor clothing are furnished, it is evident that his funds must exceed the amount of that annuity. Upon admission he must bring with him the following articles, or, in lieu of them, must make an additional annual payment of 60 francs :—

1 Complete bed.
1 Set of drawers.
1 Elbow and one common chair.
4 Suits of new clothes.

6 New shirts.
12 New napkins.
12 New common towels.
1 Silver vessel.
1 Silver *couvert.*

No persons are admitted who have any contagious or disgusting infirmity, or whose lives and morals are such as to render them unfit inmates. Should any of those individuals who have paid up their annuity from the age of 40 be in this situation, they can on no account be admitted, but receive, instead, an annual sum of 600 francs from the administration.

In this establishment, as in the other hospices of Paris, any individual may found a bed; in which case he must make over to the administration a rent in perpetuity of one-tenth more than the regular annuity, or, in lieu of it, a capital, with a proportional addition of one-tenth. He or his heirs, then, upon conforming to the regulations of the house, possess the right of nomination.

Each person in Ste Perine has a chamber to himself; but unless furnished with a certificate from the medical attendant, he is obliged to dine in public. The diet is full, and as follows:—20 ounces of bread, Paris weight; one litre (2·1133 English wine-pints) of wine to the men, half a litre to the women, *daily.* For dinner,—soup, boiled meat, and an *entrée* of roast, or some dressed dish, four times a-week; soup, boiled meat, and vegetables, twice

a-week; and on Friday, eggs instead of butcher-meat. For supper,—vegetables, or rice, or salad, or cheese, or fruit, according to fancy.

By an *arreté* of 1818, the household-service of the establishment was confided to the *Sœurs de la Congregation de la Sagesse.* Their number is eight, and they are required to direct all the domestic details of the house, and superintend the domestics. They are fed and lodged, and receive an annual sum of 200 francs, out of which they must provide their clothing. After having served ten years, and becoming aged and infirm, they are received as regular inmates of the establishment; or, should they prefer to return to the head-quarters of the Congregation, they receive a small sum of money, and have their travelling expenses paid.

The number of beds in this institution is 175; of which number one-half is destined for men, and the other half for women. In the *Comptes Moraux*, it is observed, that among the persons admitted in the year 1822, 17 were from 60 to 70 years of age, 16 from 70 to 80, and 4 from 80 to 90. They were for the most part small proprietors (*rentiers*), or persons employed in the public offices; amongst them there were one *greffier*, one herald-at-arms, two clergymen, three men and one woman of noble family, and one field-officer. The average annual number of admissions may be rated at from 30 to 35.

The next establishment to be noticed is that of Montrouge, now named the Hospice de la Rochefoucauld: it is of an inferior description to that of Ste

Perine, and holds, in that respect, an intermediate place between it and the ordinary hospices of the capital. The prices of admission are much lower, and the comforts and conveniences consequently on an inferior scale; yet it is an institution of very great value, and merits particular notice. The building was commenced in 1781, and finished in 1783; it at first received the appellation of *Maison Royale de Santé*, and was destined to the reception of soldiers and ecclesiastics; the former of whom were nominated by the procurator of the parliament, the latter by the agents of the clergy. Many contributions soon served to increase its revenues; the clergy endowed it with the sum of 100,000 livres, the king gave in perpetuity an annual sum of 10,000, and the city of Paris of 1800 livres; so that for the maintenance of 16 beds, which was the original number, it in a short time possessed an income of 24,000 livres, or nearly a thousand pounds sterling.

Previous to the Revolution, the administration was about to increase the number of beds; but that event taking place soon after, the destination and character of the institution were entirely changed. It was converted into a sick-hospital for the inhabitants of Bourg-la-Reine and villages belonging to that arrondissement, under the name of *Hospice National*. In 1796 its destination was once more changed to that of an hospice for indigent and infirm people; and, lastly, being put under the jurisdiction of the General Hospital Council, it became

what it actually is, a house of refuge for persons who, without being in a state of absolute indigence, yet do not possess sufficient means to command the necessaries of life.

The Hospice de la Rochefoucauld is situated at Montrouge, beyond the Barrière d'Enfer, at a very short distance from Paris, and on the road to Orleans; its situation is good, the air healthy, and the buildings not too much confined. It is specially destined to receive, 1st, persons who have been employed for a certain time in the service of the hospitals; 2d, persons whose means are so small as to be inadequate to the procuring the necessaries of life; 3d, aged and infirm ecclesiastics. The necessary requisites for admission are, the age of 60 for such as have no infirmity; the age of 20 for such as have lost the use of their limbs, or by some incurable malady are precluded from gaining a livelihood by manual labour; and a certificate similar to that already described as requisite to obtaining admission into the Salpétrière and Bicêtre. The annuity to be payed by the aged is 200 francs, (£ 8,) and that by the infirm 250 (£10.) The capitals payable in lieu of these annuities at the period of entry are, for the former,

From 60 to 65 years,	fr. 1600	£64
65 to 70	1500	£60
70 to 75	1200	£48
75 to 80	900	£36
Above 80	700	£28

And for the latter,

From 20 to 30 years,	fr. 3600	£144
30 to 40	3300	£132
40 to 50	2700	£108
50 to 60	2100	£84

The number of beds reserved for ecclesiastics is 12, and the annuity to be paid 250 francs. Before being admitted, they are required to bring proof that their regular income does not exceed 400 francs.

Any inmate may leave this hospice if he does not find it suit him; in which case, if he has paid up his capital, it is returned to him with a deduction of 200 francs for every year he may have remained in the house.

The diet of this hospice is much the same as that of the other hospices treated of in the preceding chapter; it is perhaps rather fuller, the ration of butcher-meat being about a third more.

The number of beds is limited to 75 for men, and a like number for women; there is besides an infirmary for such as may be taken ill. The population generally consists of tradesmen of an inferior order, of labourers of various kinds, domestics, washerwomen, coachmen, and persons employed in the lower duties of public offices. The average mortality may be stated at one in 8, and the annual number of admissions at from 30 to 35; the expenses of the *personnel* at 7000 francs (£280.)

The Hospice des Ménages, which is now to be considered, and which was formerly named *Les Petites Maisons*, was originally what in early times was named a *Maladrerie ;* into which were received persons afflicted with the venereal disease. It was situated in the Faubourg St Germain, and towards the middle of the 16th century fell entirely into ruin. It was in consequence totally demolished, and the city of Paris, having possession of the locality, caused a new hospice to be built to receive sick and indigent persons of every description. Lunatics, idiots, and children, the lame, blind, epileptic, and impotent, were all to be found in it. There were also a certain number of beds reserved for persons afflicted with syphilis ; part of which were for soldiers of the French and Swiss Guards, who paid 30 livres for their treatment : 44 beds were reserved for lunatics, who paid 300 francs a-year.

The General Council, by a *réglement* of 1801, caused *Les Petites Maisons*, from that time forward, to be reserved for the reception of aged and infirm persons in the marriage state. The lunatics and other inmates were removed to the establishments specially destined for them, and the institution then received the appellation of *Hospice des Ménages*, which it at present bears. The number of beds and chambers was fixed by a *réglement* of 1804 as follows :

160 large chambers for man and wife.
100 Smaller chambers for widowers and widows.
250 beds in the wards.

Of the large chambers, the most convenient are reserved for married couples of 70 and 60 years of age, who can afford to pay a sum of 3200 francs (£128;) 80 are reserved for such as are so destitute of resources as to be unable to pay; in which case they must bring proof of having lived 20 years as man and wife (*en ménage.*) The 100 smaller chambers are for such widowers or widows as can afford to pay the sum of 1600 francs, (£64;) they must be at least 60 years of age, and bring proof of having lived 20 years in the wedded state. Of the 250 beds of the public wards, 150 are reserved for persons who have become widowed in the establishment; the remainder are occupied by such persons as have attained at least 60 years of age, and can afford to pay 1000 francs (£40) for their admission. A certain number of beds also are reserved for females belonging to religious orders, (*religieuses,*) who must, before being admitted, make over two-thirds of their ecclesiastical annuity to the administration, and produce proof of their annual income not exceeding 400 francs.

Every person upon entering this establishment must bring with him a completely furnished bed, two chairs, and a chest of drawers. If he has a chamber he receives 20 ounces of bread daily, one pound of meat every ten days, a certain allowance of firewood and charcoal for cooking his victuals, which he does in his own apartment, and, in addition, 30 centimes or threepence a-day in money. If he be in the wards, his diet is much the same as that of the Salpétrière and Bicêtre.

The number of beds in the Hospice des Ménages is as follows :—

	Chambers.	Wards.	Total.
Men,	198	125	323
Women,	222	137	359
	420	262	682

The mortality for the year 1822 was 62, or about 1 in 11,$\frac{7}{10}$, and the number of admissions was 57 ; amongst the latter were—

6 *ménages*	at 3200 fr. (£128)	19,200 fr.	(£768)
7 individuals,	at 1600 fr. (£64)	11,200 fr.	(£448)
20 do.	at 1000 fr. (£40)	20,000 fr.	(£800)
	Total,	50,400 fr.	(£2016)

The household-service is performed by 31 Sisters of Charity, aided by 10 inferior assistants. The total expense of the *personnel* may be stated at 15,000 francs.

In a former part of this work, it might have been proper, whilst treating more particularly of sick-hospitals, to have made mention of another species of institution denominated in France *Maisons de Santé*. As, however, the admissions are not gratuitous, it was deemed better to reserve them to this part of the work, although in fact they

are nothing more nor less than sick hospitals, in which the comforts and conveniences are of rather superior description. In Paris the *Maisons de Santé* are two in number, and, like the establishments hitherto spoken of, are under the control of the General Council. Their utility in a great town cannot be denied, and experience has pointed out their value. There are many individuals who, when afflicted with malady, have not an income sufficient to procure all the medical care and numerous attentions necessary to their situation, and yet, from their station in life, though humble, are precluded from entering into a sick-hospital. There are also frequently in large and busy cities a class of strangers who, perhaps with limited funds and a still more limited acquaintance, find themselves, in case of illness, in a state of isolation, treated with neglect, at least with attentions of the coldest and most mercenary description.

The General Hospital Council was but a short while established in its rights, when the idea of an institution to provide for such cases presented itself. In consequence of deliberations upon the subject, an *arreté* of 1802 was promulgated, by which a building, anciently founded by St Vincent de Paule for the maintenance of 40 aged persons, who had since been removed elsewhere, was selected for that purpose. It was situated in the Faubourg St Martin, but, being soon found insufficient, the establishment was removed in 1816 to No 12, Rue Faubourg St Denis, into a building formerly inha-

bited by the congregation of the *Sœurs Grises*, where it now exists under the name of *Maison Royale de Santé*. Into this institution are received only such persons of either sex as can afford to pay a daily sum for their treatment. The prices are as follows :—

	franc.	cent.
For a bed in the public rooms,	2	50
For a bed in the rooms with two or three beds, - - -	3	50
For a private room, - -	5	0
For a private room, - - -	6	0

Upon entering, a fortnight's payment must be made in advance; should the cure be completed before the expiration of this term, a certain proportion of the sum is returned; but this, however short the stay, never can exceed the half. Should the cure render a longer stay necessary, another fortnight must be paid in advance. The medical and surgical service is performed at 7 in the morning in summer, and at 8 in winter; the evening visits are between 4 and 8 o'clock. With respect to diet, the patients are divided, as in the sick-hospitals, into

Malades à la diète absolue,
à la diète,
à la soupe,
à la portion,
aux trois quarts de portion,
à la mi-portion,
au quart de portion.

The diet of those persons who have private chambers is rather better than that of the others. No individual is allowed to receive any thing from without the house, except fruits, biscuits, and fine wines.

Into this establishment every species of malady, surgical or medical, is received, with the exception of epilepsy, madness, and incurable or contagious diseases. The number of beds is 114 for men, and 62 for women; and the great and regular increase from year to year in the number of admissions is the best proof of the benefit the public derive from it. For many years after its formation, the expenditure exceeded the receipts; from 1804 to 1813, inclusive, the former was 1,178,279 francs (£47,131), while the latter was only 902,339 (£36,093), making an excess of expenditure of 275,940 francs (£11,038). But as the annual population has increased, the relative amount of expenditure has diminished, till now it generally is under the amount of receipt.

In 1822, the total number of persons treated was,

	Men.	Women.
Surg.	470	183
Med.	738	453
	1208	636 = 1844.

Of this number 310 died, giving a mortality of one in $5\frac{57}{100}$.

The receipts for 1822 amounted to	134,280 fr.
The expenditure to . .	130,689
Difference,	3591

The other *Maison de Santé* is solely reserved for persons afflicted with the venereal disease. It was established in 1809, and is situated near the Venereal Hospital, in the Rue du Faubourg St Jacques. The regulations concerning admission and payment are the same as in the preceding. The medicines and food are supplied from the adjoining hospital.

The prices are,

	6 summer months.	6 winter months.
For private rooms,	5 fr. 0	6 fr. 0
Closets with one bed,	3 50	4 50
Closets with two beds,	3 50	4 0
Public rooms, .	2 50	3 0

The total number of beds is 63, and the number of persons treated in 1822 was 340, of whom 3 died. Many young men, engaged in the study of law and medicine in the schools of the capital, are to be found inmates of this house. According to the *Comptes Moraux* for 1822, the expenditure for that year was 46,166 francs, and the receipts 46,145, presenting a difference too trifling to be noticed.*

Such is a short account of the various paying establishments of charity, if they may be so termed, which are under the jurisdiction of the General Hospital Council of the capital. It has been at-

* It may be here mentioned, that several private individuals in Paris receive into their houses, on payment of a certain sum of money, persons afflicted with disease. These houses are also sometimes denominated *Maisons de Santé.*

tempted to give as clear an idea as possible of their character; their internal management, and the nature of the benefit derived from them. But, before leaving so interesting a subject, it may be proper to make cursory mention of another institution of the same description, which differs from the others in the circumstance of its not being subject to the control of the General Council. This is the *Asyle Royale de Providence*, founded, in 1804, by M. and Madame Micault de la Vieuville, and made a royal establishment by an *ordonnance* of the 24th December, 1817. It is under the immediate authority of the minister of the interior, and is destined to receive 60 aged and infirm persons, who are lodged and fed whether in health or in disease. Persons having no bodily infirmity are required to be at least 60 years of age; the infirm may be younger, but must not be afflicted with epilepsy, madness, or contagious disease. Upon entering, they must either bring with them a bed, wardrobe, table, chairs, and other household articles, or pay 60 francs to the administration.

The 60 places are distributed as follows:—12 are gratis; of these two are in the gift of the founder, M. de la Vieuville; two in that of the Minister of the Interior; and eight in that of the Society of Providence, which is intimately connected with the institution, and, indeed, was originally founded for the purpose of supporting it. Eight places that pay the full annuity, and four that pay the half, were founded by the king, and are given away on the

presentation of the minister of his household. Of the remaining places, 18 are in the nomination of the Society of Providence, and 20 in that of the administration of the institution itself. The annuity to be paid is 600 francs.

The administration is composed of a head administrator, whose services are gratuitous, and of a council of four members, one of whom is named by the minister of the interior, one by the minister of the king's household, and two by the Society of Providence. Three *Sœurs Hospitalières* perform the internal service of the house.

In the provincial towns of France, the indigent, who are in a state to pay a small sum of money to assist in their maintenance, are received into the general hospital, where their treatment corresponds with the amount of the sum paid. In Italy and Germany this is also the case; and there are few great establishments of charity in these countries into which there are not two classes of inmates—those who pay and those who are admitted *gratis*. In the civil hospital of Strasbourg, the number of indigent admitted in a state of health average above 500, of whom about 60 pay, and the remainder do not; the former either make a payment in capital on admission, or make over to the administration a certain sum per annum: it is by the extent of this sum or annuity that their food is regulated. The revenues, however, from this sum are trifling—being, for the year 1822, not more than 4000 francs. Both in this hospital and that of Lyons, sick per-

sons of a better class are admitted upon payment of so much a-day; but the system is by no means carried to the extent it is in other countries of the continent. In the canton of Geneva, the old and indigent are pensioned out in the country. In Berne there is situated, near the gate of Geneva, a large and beautiful building, into which are received such persons as can afford to pay a small sum, which, in private life, would be insufficient to maintain them. It contains also rooms for the reception of strangers passing through the town;* and there is a ward expressly reserved for domestics of the citizens, who pay a certain sum for their treatment when afflicted with disease. This establishment, therefore, combines the characters of a paying hospice and of a *Maison de Santé*. The building is very handsome,—it forms a square, enclosing a garden for the recreation of the inmates; and the situation is good and healthy.

In the great hospital of Vienna, which generally averages 1600 inmates, but is capable of containing 2000, there are two classes of patients, gratis and paying; the latter are again separated into classes, according to the amount of payment they make. The highest payment is one *florin* a-day; for

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* They are fed and lodged for 24 hours; and, when they leave the house, receive a pint of wine and portion of bread. It has happened that no less than 200 travelling mechanics have lodged in one night, and from 12 to 13,000 in the course of the year, in this hospital.

which the individual receives a room to himself, furnished with every convenience and comfort, as well as the attendance of a nurse day and night. The second class pay 30 *kreutzers* a-day. In both cases the money must be paid weekly in advance. Inmates of this class sleep in public wards, which differ from the common wards of the house in the linen being finer and the food better. There is still a third class who pay as low as 10 *kreutzers* a-day; domestics sent by families are included in this class.

In the *Ospedale degli Incurabili*, at Naples, a ward is reserved for 50 persons, who pay 2 francs a-day for their maintenance. They are kept clean and comfortable, and a physician and assistant are appointed expressly to attend them. In the hospitals of Milan, and of many other cities of the continent, the custom of admitting paying patients is adopted with the very best results. In St Petersburg, also, a somewhat similar practice is followed; and the great nobles pay for the admission of their serfs into the public establishments for the sick and infirm.

Before proceeding to a consideration of the establishments destined for infancy and childhood, which form the subject of the next chapter, there are one or two institutions of charity which it may be proper to take this occasion of mentioning. From their importance and interesting nature they claim our notice; and, though totally unconnected with the general administration of hospitals, the

present work would certainly be incomplete were they passed over in silence. They are the asylums for the blind and for the deaf and dumb, and are governed by administrations of their own not subject to the General Hospital Council.

The most extensive of these, and one of the most ancient charitable institutions of the kingdom, is the *Hôpital des Quinze-Vingts*, founded in 1260 by St Louis, king of France, for the reception of 300 persons who had lost their eyesight in the wars of the Crusades. He intrusted its administration to the grand-almoner of France. The inmates were divided into *aveugles* and *voyants*, the latter of whom conducted the former. They were allowed to contract marriages, but only on condition that these should be between an *aveugle* and *voyant;* two blind persons, or two who had their sight, were not allowed to marry. In the year 1779 the establishment was removed from the original building to the *Hôtel des Mousquetaires Noirs, Rue de Charenton*, by order of the Cardinal de Rohan, grand-almoner of France. During the Revolution it lost great part of its revenues; but these were afterwards restored by Louis XVIII. The number of inmates is now 300, and it is this number which gives its name of *Quinze-Vingts*. They must be indigent and blind; but, as the benefit of the institution is not confined to the capital, applications for admission may be made from all parts of the country. The comforts of this establishment are very great, and each individual, be-

sides various perquisites, receives one franc a-day for himself, 50 cents. for his wife, and 25 cents. for each of his children. The work performed in the house is very interesting and very varied: some are turners, others watchmakers; many of them are employed in making children's toys, purses, laces, small trinkets, and different articles of paper or pasteboard. Much of the ordinary business of the house also is performed by them. When they show a taste for music, that is encouraged; and, in the year 1826, there were 23 male and 9 female musicians, one organist and one piano-forte tuner, in the establishment. When they show a marked taste for science or literature, encouragement is not less given to it; and several of them teach grammar, languages, and mathematics. The establishment has even given a professor of the last-mentioned branch of science to a royal college. This hospital is administered by the grand-almoner of France, who nominates to the vacant places, and by a council of six administrators.

Besides the Hôpital des Quinze-Vingts, there is another institution for the blind in Paris, which is under very excellent management. It was founded by M. Valentin Hauy in the year 1784, and was then connected with the Philanthropic Society. At present that connexion no longer exists, it having been created a royal institution in 1791 by Louis XVI., under the name of *Institution Royale des Jeunes Aveugles*. It contains places for 60 boys and 30 girls, who are maintained eight years

at the expense of the state, and are taught music, reading, writing, arithmetic, and a variety of trades. Demands for admission must be addressed to the minister of the interior, and must be accompanied with a register of birth. The applicant must not be under 10 or above 14 years of age, and must present a certificate signed by the surgeon of the hospice, and properly legalized, proving him to be quite blind, to have no contagious disease, and to be in no degree afflicted with idiocy. Testimonies of good conduct and complete indigence, signed by the mayor or curé of his parish, are also required. Independent of gratis admission, this institution is open to paying inmates or boarders. In this case the amount and condition of board are arranged with the director, who reports to the administration. A stranger will be very much struck with the degree of perfection to which many articles of manufacture have been carried in this institution, as well as with the great variety of those manufactured. The following is a list of the principal of these, and it will give a good idea of the utility of educating the blind from a tender age :—

Typography in relief.

Work with the needle in wool, thread, or cotton; stockings, under-waistcoats, and petticoats; children's clothes of various colours; caps of different forms and colours.

Whips of cord or gut.

Socks of list, hair, &c.

Baskets and hats of straw; mats of different colours; chair-stuffing.

Knitting purses of different patterns and colours; work-bags, caps, stockings, fringes, &c. in silk or cotton.

Bracelets, cords, and chains for watches.

Crosses, rings, and other ornaments in hair or silk.

Tapestry worked with the needle.

Spinning on the wheel or spindle.

Weaving, including the fabrication of the linen, of woollen and cotton coverlets, &c.

It is farther intended, when sufficient space and funds can be obtained, to establish a rope, basket, and lace manufactory. Many of the inmates, from their knowledge of music, are engaged in the neighbouring parishes as organists.

The Deaf and Dumb Asylum of Paris has long possessed a European celebrity from the name of its founder, the Abbé de l'Epée, and his worthy successor, the Abbé Sicard. But, for many years after its foundation it was little known to the public in general; and it was the Emperor Joseph II. who first had the merit of calling the attention of government to an institution of so admirable a nature. In November, 1776, a decree was passed, authorising it to take possession of a building formerly occupied by a convent of Celestins; this, however, was not effected till the year 1785, when an annuity of 3400 livres was, at the same time,

made over to it. The Abbé de l'Epée dying in 1790, was succeeded by the Abbé Sicard, who was, upon his death, in 1822, succeeded by the Abbé Perier. The Deaf and Dumb Asylum is now situated in the *Rue Faubourg St Jacques*, and is under the immediate jurisdiction of the minister of the interior, and a gratuitous council of seven members. The number of *gratis* patients is fixed at 90. To have a right to admission, the applicant must be at least 12, and at most 16 years of age, and must present a certificate, signed by the local authorities, proving him to be totally deaf and dumb, free from any bodily or mental infirmity, and his parents not in a condition to pay a board for him. The minister of the interior nominates to one-half of these places; the administration to the other half. During their stay in the institution, which is five years, they are fed, clothed, and instructed in the principles of religion, in reading, writing, arithmetic, and drawing, and are taught some trade. This establishment is also open to all deaf and dumb children whose parents can afford to pay a board; the *maximum* of this board is 900 francs (£36) for boys, and 800 francs (£32) for girls.

At Bordeaux there is another asylum of this description, very much on the same footing; it contains about 80 inmates, of whom 60 are maintained at the cost of the state. The degree of instruction differs little from that adopted in Paris; but Dr Otto says, the facility which the *élèves* show in pronouncing and understanding is by no means

equal to what it is in the institutions of Vienna and Berlin.

These institutions are very excellent of their kind; but it is much to be regretted, when such good results are obtained, that their benefits cannot be more extended. Apparently excluded from social existence and the consolations of religion by their infirmity, it is by education alone that this unfortunate class of beings can be brought to a level with the rest of mankind. But much yet remains to be done; the number of deaf and dumb persons in France is rated at about 12,000, and there are scarcely 400 places in the different institutions reserved for them. At Rhodez, Angers, Caen, Marseille, and one or two other towns, there are private establishments, kept up by charity, by legacies, and by sums paid by the administrations of departments for patients to be educated in them. These, however, are of no great extent, and administer to the misfortunes of but a small moiety of the deaf and dumb population of the kingdom.

The minister of the interior has thrown out an idea, in an *instruction* of the 8th February, 1822, that each department should create so many bursaries in the deaf and dumb establishments which are situated nearest to them.* This is a suggestion that might be acted on with the greatest advantage.

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* Vid. Diction. Départ. par Pechart, p. 58.

CHAPTER IX.

LYING-IN HOSPITALS.—SCHOOL OF MIDWIFERY.—CONDITION, NUMBER, AND MORTALITY OF FOUNDLINGS AND ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY.—FOUNDLING AND ORPHAN HOSPITALS.

THE charitable institutions connected with childhood in Paris are, the *Maison d'Accouchement*, the *Hospice des Enfans Trouvés*, *Hospice des Orphelins*, and *Hôpital des Enfans Malades*. Each of these is well entitled to consideration; and whatever is worthy of notice in their administration or internal management will be pointed out.

In times previous to the Revolution, lying-in women were received into the Hôtel Dieu, then a receptacle for every species of inmate. There were reserved for them 67 large and 39 small beds; the former were 4½ feet wide, and held three and sometimes four persons. Healthy and diseased females were placed indifferently in the same bed, and it is impossible to conceive any thing more dreadful than the state in which the lying-in wards of this hospital were. The physical evils of such a situation were terrible, and the moral ones no less so. At

last public attention was drawn to what called so loudly for reform; and an establishment destined exclusively for the reception of poor lying-in women was formed.

In the year XI. the National Convention passed a decree, setting forth that the convent of *Val de Grace*, which had been at first destined for a military hospital, should serve for the establishment of an *Hospice de Maternité*, the institution of which was legalized by the same decree. This hospice, however, had not been three months in existence, when a new decree of the Convention converted the *Val de Grace* into a military hospital for the Legion of Police, and ordered the removal of the *Maternité* to the two houses of the ancient convent of *Port Royal, Faubourg St Jacques*, and of the institution of the *Oratoire, Rue d'Enfer*. The former of these then received the appellation of *Section d'Allaitement*, the latter of *Section d'Accouchement*. The two together formed the *Hospice de Maternité*, and remained so without change till the year 1814, when the two sections were entirely separated,—the one receiving the name of *Hospice des Enfans Trouvés*, the other retaining that of *Maison d'Accouchement*.

The *Maison d'Accouchement*, which is first to be considered, and which, from its very great importance, not only to Paris, but, as will afterwards be seen, to all France, merits to be so, is specially destined to the reception of pregnant females, and to form a practical school of midwifery.

Every female wishing admission must be examined by the head-midwife, who is to declare by certificate that she has found her to be in her eighth month of pregnancy, or in imminent danger of lying in before her time. Upon her admission she is registered; but is not required, unless she chooses, to give her name, residence, or profession. After delivery, she must make to the civil officer the necessary declaration required by law, which declaration is remitted by him to the municipality. According to article 55 of the *code civil*, respecting registers of birth, this declaration must be made within three days after delivery to the *officier de l'état civil*, to whom the infant must be presented. By article 56 of the same code, it is required that the birth of an infant be declared by the father, or, in fault of him, by the physician, surgeon, midwife, *officier de santé*, or any other person that shall have assisted at the delivery. The register of birth must be drawn up in the presence of two witnesses.

After her delivery, the mother is at liberty to preserve or to abandon her child. In the former case, neither she nor the child is any longer under the control of the administration.* If, however, the mother chooses to remain and suckle

* In Prussia, the law requires that a poor female should suckle her own child; if that be impossible, and she is unable to pay a nurse, a guardian is appointed for the infant, and the administration of charity provides for its maintenance.

her own child, and another at the same time, she is removed to the Foundling Hospital, where, if there is a vacancy, she obtains the situation of *nourrice sédentaire*. But, if she does not choose to do this, she must quit the establishment; being allowed to remain in it only eight days after delivery, unless the term be prolonged by order of the medical attendant. Every female admitted into the *Maison d'Accouchement* is obliged to work, as far as her health and state will permit. For this purpose many work-chambers are established, under the superintendence of a directress. These are open from eight in the morning till eleven, and again from one till five. Every article of clothes required, not only for the adults and infants of the establishment, but also for those children who are in the country, are here manufactured; and every woman is paid her money the instant her work is finished. The rate of payment is very trifling; but still the women as well as the administration gain by the arrangement; and, at the same time, habits of industry and morality are acquired and encouraged.

Besides the ordinary medical and surgical attendants, there are attached to the *Maison d'Accouchement* one head-midwife and three assistants. The situation of the first of these is only given to such women as are duly qualified in their profession, and have practised it for the space of ten years. She is nominated by the minister of the interior out of a list of five candidates chosen by the hospital-administration. Her salary is 2400 francs (£96) a-year,

and she receives besides 30 francs (£1, 4s.) from each *élèvé*. Lodging and food are provided for her; and she has the charge of the whole apparatus connected with the teaching and practice of midwifery. The three places of assistants are given to such of the *élèves* as have distinguished themselves; they are lodged, fed, and receive, the first a salary of 600 francs (£24), the second of 500 (£20), the third of 400 (£16). The number of what are named sedentary nurses varies; no one is received as such whose milk is more than three months old, and none are retained after fifteen months. They receive for one child 3.5 centimes, or about 3½d. a-day, and a gratification, if they leave the child in health: both the daily payment and gratification are doubled, if they nurse two children.

The diet of the pregnant females of the *Maison d'Accouchement* is as follows:—

Daily,
- One pound and a half of bread.*
- 25 centilitres of wine (.5283 of an English wine-pint).

Breakfast,—Vegetable soup.

Dinner,
- 60 centilitres (1.2679 of an English wine-pint), of soup.
- 7 ounces of boiled beef (12 oz. raw).
- 6 ounces of vegetables.

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* The weights are in French pounds. The French pound is to the avoirdupois pound as 7.561 : 7.000.

Supper,—4 ounces of boiled beef (8 oz. of raw).

The diet for females in childbed is,—

The three first days,
- 4 *bouillons* of 25 centilitres (·5283 English wine-pint) each.
- 25 centilitres of wine (.5283 English wine-pint).

The 4th, 5th, and 6th days,
- 25 centilitres of wine (.5283 English wine-pint).
- 1 *bouillon* of 25 centilitres (.5283 English wine-pint).
- 1 chopin of broth twice a-day.
- 8 oz. of boiled meat (1 lb. raw).
- 8 oz. of roast meat (12 oz. raw).

In extraordinary cases, the medical attendants or the head-midwife may vary the nature and extent of this diet.

The number of beds in the Lying-in Hospital are,

For pregnant women,	150
For lying-in women,	100
Infants,	25
Nurses,	8
Females studying midwifery,	150
Total,	433

The number of pregnant females delivered in 1822 was 2631, of whom 93 died; giving a mor-

tality of nearly one in 30.* According to the report made to the Constituent Assembly by M. de la Rochefoucauld, the mortality in the lying-in wards of the Hôtel Dieu was 1 in 13. Since that time, therefore, there has been a diminution of deaths of more than one-half,—a most striking and gratifying proof of the great improvement that has taken place in this branch of public charity.†

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* In the city of Dublin, with a population not exceeding 200,000, the lying-in hospital at present receives annually between 3 and 4000 females. The number admitted since 1757, the date of its foundation, up to 1825, was 107,611. In Paris, having a population four or five times as great, the average number of females received into the *Maison d'Accouchement* is considerably below 3000 annually.

† The proportion of deaths in childbed is still very high in Paris, a circumstance not easy to account for. The mortality in the *Maison d'Accouchement* was,

For 1819,	1 : 17
1820,	1 : 14,20
1821,	1 : 55
1822,	1 : 30

There is no progressive improvement here such as might have been expected; and if it be compared with the following table, by Willan, of the mortality of an English lying-in hospital, we cannot but be surprised at the difference:—

From 1749 to 1758	1 : 42
1759 1768	1 : 50
1769 1778	1 : 53
1779 1788	1 : 60

Having considered the *Maison d'Accouchement* as an hospital, it must now be considered as a

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From 1789 to 1798	1 : 288
1799 1800	1 : 913 (?)

Every where, however, in some degree, the mortality of lying-in females has diminished, from the great improvements made in the art of midwifery. When Frank became professor of midwifery at Spires, he found the mortality throughout the country to be 1 : 85. After ten years teaching he reduced it to 1 : 125. In Berlin, in the space of sixty years, it has been reduced from 1 : 95 to 1 : 132. The same improvement has taken place in respect to the number of children born alive. Tenon valued the number of still-born children in the hospitals of Paris previous to the Revolution as 1 : 13 and 1 : 14. It is actually much less. From the year 1804 to 1813 inclusive, the total number of births in the lying-in hospital was 18,367, and of still births, for the same period of time, 865; being a proportion of 1 : 21,23.

In the hospital of the *Charité* at Lyons, the number and mortality of lying-in females for several years were as follows:—

	Number admitted.	Mortality.
1806	508	12
1807	583	7
1808	501	15
1809	550	7
1810	568	5
1811	581	8
Total,	3191	54 — 1 : 59.

Vid. *Archiv. Hist. et Stat.* (*Lyon*) *No.* 15.

school, and as one of the most important in the kingdom, not only from the extent and character of the information given in it, but from the great influence it exerts over the whole of France. The minister of the interior, in the year 1802, addressed a memorial to the prefects of departments. In this he complains of the mischief arising from the imperfect education the country afforded in this branch of the medical art, and the difficulty hitherto experienced in the endeavour to find a remedy for this imperfection. He then goes on to show the great advantage of establishing a school of midwifery in the Lying-in Hospital of the capital. He says, that thus not only will females receive a thorough knowledge of the theory and principles of the profession they propose to follow, but will be fully exercised in the manual part by being called upon in their turn to operate; and what an immense extent of knowledge may be acquired in an establishment where between two and three thousand females are delivered annually, and how soon will the union of practice and theory there observed be attended with the most beneficial results in imparting solid experience, and in diminishing the evils that have resulted hitherto from an imperfect education. The law of the 10th March, 1803, which authorised the formation of regular courses of midwifery in the departments, rendered the school of Paris rather what the French call an *Ecole de Perfectionnement*,—that is to say, a school in which an education already begun may be finished,—than a mere ele-

mentary place of instruction. Accordingly, the minister, in a circular of the same year, whilst he engages the different prefects of departments to send every year one or more female *élèves* in midwifery to the school of the capital, advises them to give the preference to those who have attained already a certain knowledge of the art.

This admirable school, which has now risen to such a height of celebrity, owes its foundation to the enlightened views of M. le Comte de Chaptal, then minister of the interior. Its success has fully come up to the expectations of its founder; and, amidst all the institutions of France, excellent as in general they are, there is no one more deserving of praise than that at present under consideration.

The branches of instruction given in the School of Midwifery are, 1st, theory and practice of midwifery; 2d, vaccination; 3d, bleeding; 4th, the knowledge of plants, especially of those used in the obstetric art.

The prefects of departments send every year to the school a number of females, proportioned to the funds at their disposal; and the minister, in his anxiety for the good of the institution, has pointed out to them the sources from which they may obtain these funds.

The females must belong to the department by which they are sent, and they must not be under 18 or above 35 years of age. Before being nominated, they are required to give proofs of being able to read and write, to produce their registers of

birth, and also of marriage, if they happen to be married, and to exhibit a certificate, signed by the *maire* of their *commune*, purporting that they have led an honest and respectable life.

Besides departmental administrations, the administrative commissions also of such civil hospitals of provincial towns, whose annual revenues amount to 20,000 francs, (£800,) are called upon to send an *élève* to the capital, who is directed to be chosen in preference from among the females brought up in the hospital.

The *élèves* must arrive in Paris from the 1st to the 10th of July: they immediately present themselves to the hospital-agent, who, after examining their certificates, and finding that they are in accordance with the conditions required, gives them an order of admission. The board to be paid by the prefects of departments, or hospital-commissioners, for the maintenance of an *élève* at the Ecole d'Accouchement, is fixed at 600 francs, (£24;) in addition they must remit 36 francs (£1 : 9 : 2) for washing; 25 fr. 75 cent. (£1 : 0 : 7½) for the great work and the catechism of Beaudelocque; 10 fr. for Madame Boivin's work, *Sur l'Art des Accouchemens;* and 24 fr. 90 cent. for the purchase of a female catheter, a pair of scissors, a laryngeal tube, a syringe, and injection-pipe. The total sum to be paid for each *élève* then amounts to 696 francs and 65 cents. (£27 : 17 : 10½.) Her travelling expenses are also paid.

In the hospice a lecture is given by the professor

twice a-week, and by the head-midwife daily, on the principles and theory of midwifery. From 10 to 12 in the morning and from 6 to 8 in the evening, the *élèves* meet in classes, under the charge of one of their own number, to go over more fully the information they have received from these lectures. They are also regularly examined as to their proficiency both by the physician and head-midwife. Their lectures may be followed by the females attending the midwifery-classes of the School of Medicine; who are on no account, however, permitted to share in the practical part of the instruction. As to the practice of midwifery, each *élève*, as soon as the head-midwife deems her fit for it, is called in her turn to deliver or to assist in delivery. When the case is any way difficult or uncommon, the head-midwife must operate herself, and then a greater number of *élèves* are called about her; should the case threaten danger, the *accoucheur* must be sent for.

A course of lectures upon inoculation by the vaccine virus is opened on the 1st of May, and continued twice a-week by the principal physician of the establishment; and the *élèves* are regularly exercised in the practice of it by the head-midwife. They are also exercised in the art of venesection as fully as opportunity will admit.

A course of botany is given under the direction of the physician, during the proper season; and those plants that may be required in the practice of midwifery are most particularly considered.

At the close of each year, the *élèves* undergo an examination as to their proficiency before a jury, consisting of the physician, the accoucheur, the assistant-physician, and two commissioners, the one nominated by the General Hospital Council, the other by the Faculty of Medicine. This jury draws up a statement of the appearance the *élèves* have made before them; and this again is transmitted to the Faculty of Medicine, who give to each *élève* found qualified a certificate of capacity. This certificate is afterwards exchanged for a diploma, delivered by the jury of the department to which the candidate belongs. Every year a certain number of prizes are distributed to such as, upon farther examination, have proved their superior acquaintance with the principles and practice of their profession; the first prize is a gold medal of the weight of *55 grammes 5 decagrammes*, (1044.900 grains;) a prize is also given to the most attentive, and another to the best-behaved. If an *élève* has not made all the progress that was to have been expected, and wishes to remain longer than the fixed term in the school, she must make application to the prefect of her department for permission so to do.

Upon the return of the various *élèves* who have been studying at Paris to their respective departments, they must immediately present themselves at the prefectures; and, if a medical jury should not be sitting, they there get permission to practise on their certificate obtained from the Faculty of Medicine of Paris. The first time the jury sits

this certificate is changed for a diploma. They are required to practise in the department or in the hospital which has been at the expense of their instruction.

The benefit that has accrued to the country in general from the establishment of the School of Midwifery of the capital is very marked; it has not only raised the respectability of the art, but has put a stop to many of the evils, and checked much of the presumption, arising from an insufficient education. It is evident, however, that as a school it must act more from its name and moral influence than any thing else; for when the number of *élèves* is considered, and that is not more than 150, it is plain that such a number is perfectly inadequate to the supply of the country. As the Faculties of Medicine, therefore, have secondary schools, so does the law of March, 1803, establish, in the most-frequented hospice of each department, an annual and gratuitous course of the theory and practice of midwifery. In these secondary schools, if they may be so termed, the *élèves* are obliged to follow two entire courses, and see actual practice for at least six months; after that they may be examined. Their examination is upon the theory and practice of their art, the accidents that precede and follow delivery, and the means of preventing or remedying these accidents. If they give satisfaction they receive a gratis diploma.

Should any person practise as a midwife without the proper qualifications, she may be fined 100

francs for the first offence, and for the second 200, besides being liable to imprisonment for a term not exceeding six months.*

Upon the division of the Hospice de la Maternité into two distinct establishments, the Section d'Allaitement, as it was called, became the Hospice des Enfans Trouvés. To it are sent all children born in the Maison d'Accouchement and abandoned by their parents; and into it are received all infants exposed as foundlings.

In the early ages of history, and in the times of Greece and Rome, it is well known that paternal authority was exerted in the most absolute manner. A father, upon the birth of his child, was at full liberty to preserve or abandon it; in the latter case, it became the property of whoever chose to have pity upon its forlorn state. But as the father still

* Besides the ordinary lying-in establishment of St Petersburg, there is another institution which merits notice from its being uncommon. This is an institution for pregnant females married and of respectable character. It was supported by the empress mother, contains 30 beds, and is, both with regard to building, furniture, cleanliness, internal arrangement, the handsome curtained-beds, the attendance of a nurse to each person, the excellence of the diet, and the care taken of the child, rather to be compared to the lying-in chamber of a great lady than to an hospital. Twenty young females reside in it, who are taught midwifery. It is a fact creditable to the women of St Petersburg, that, with all the luxuries of such an institution freely open to them, not more than 500 to 600 patients apply for admission in a year. *Vid.* Dr Granville's Tour, v. ii. p. 299.

retained the right of claiming it as his child when that might suit his convenience, few were adopted by strangers, as persons would not readily expose themselves to the trouble and expense of maintaining and educating a child of whose services, after it was grown up, they were liable to be deprived. The Emperor Constantine remedied this to a certain degree in an edict of the year 331; for by it he allowed any one who took pity upon a child abandoned by its parents, to retain it either in the character of a freeman or slave, the father not having the power of reclaiming it after the 10th day was past. This monarch exerted his influence to diminish the number of children abandoned by their parents; and in one of his edicts he orders the great cities of Italy and Africa to assist those parents, whose means would not admit of their bringing up their children, with money taken from the public revenues. The children were to remain in their fathers' houses, but were there to be educated at the expense of the community. The Emperors Valentinian, Valens, and Gratian, even went farther than Constantine in their exertions to stop the evil, for they declared any person convicted of exposing his child liable to heavy punishment:—"*Unusquisque sobolem suam nutriat; quod si exponendam putaverit, animadversioni quæ constituta est, subjacebit.*" By degrees, abandonment was made to be the same as infanticide, as the following sentence from the works of a lawyer, towards the close of the 4th century, proves:—"*Necare videtur, non tantum is qui partum perfocat, sed is*

qui alimonia denegat, et is qui publicis locis exposuit."

Although the condition of children was thus in some degree improved, still those who had been abandoned by their parents, and brought up by strangers, were accounted slaves; and it almost constantly happened that they were maintained by persons who did so merely for the sake of the advantages they expected at a later period of their life to reap from them. At last, however, their condition of servitude was abolished by the Emperor Justinian, by a law which was promulgated in the year 530. The words of the emperor are these:—"*Sancimus nemini licere puerum* (*expositum*) *in suum dominium vindicare, sive nomine dominii, sive ascriptitiæ sive colonariæ conditionis; sed hi qui ab ejus modi hominibus educati sunt liberi et ingenui appareant, nulla macula servitutis imbuti.*"

It is a very difficult matter to say when establishments for the reception of poor children were first formed; the various accounts handed down in ancient chronicles of the institutions that existed in the early ages of Christianity, are in general so confused and unintelligible as to leave it doubtful what the objects might be for which they were really destined. As early as the 6th century, it is said, that there existed a sort of institution for receiving exposed children in the city of Treves; there appears, however, to have been no public building or hospital for their reception. The child abandoned by its parents was placed in a marble vessel at the door of

the church; it was taken from thence and presented to the archbishop, who ordered it to be given to any of the town's-people who chose to become its adopted parents. In the Life of St Mainboeuf, who died in the year 654, at Angers, mention is made of several edifices built by him for the reception of foundlings. About a century later, the crime of infanticide had become so common at Milan, that it was found necessary to establish an hospital in order to check its frequent occurrence; into this children were received and maintained till the age of seven years.

In France, though many old chronicles make mention of such institutions, the first that can with any certainty be relied on is that established by Guido, Count of Montpellier, in his native town, in the year 1204. To perform the duties of this establishment, he founded the religious order of the St Esprit, which foundation was sanctioned by the Pope, and Guido was made grand-master. He was soon afterwards called to Rome by Innocent III., to take charge of the house of *Santa Maria in Sassia.* Authors, however, are divided upon the subject of Guido's foundation, as well as upon its date. M. Dupin makes the order of the Hospitaliers du St Esprit to have been founded by Olivier de la Tran, in 1070, and the hospital to have been founded 110 years afterwards by that order. The example given by Guido was happily followed in many other towns of France; thus the first established for this object in Paris, in 1362, was a Maison du St Esprit, as

were also those of Marseille, Aix, and Toulon. In the year 1316 was founded by Cellini, the magnificent hospital of Florence, named Spedale degli Innocenti; and in 1331 was founded in Nuremberg, by a citizen named Fleinz, an Hospital du St Esprit, for the reception of pregnant females and foundlings. In the latter establishment the expense of the maintenance and education of every child was carefully noted down; and, if he succeeded in after-life, he was called upon to reimburse the establishment for what had been expended in supporting him in his infancy.

It was 30 or 40 years after this that the hospital of the St Esprit at Paris was founded, by the voluntary contributions of several distinguished persons, and with the approval of the Regent Dauphin; its foundation was confirmed by Pope Urban V. This hospital, however, by no means resembled that of Florence. It was an orphan and not a foundling hospital; for the king's procurator at the Chatelet having attempted to gain admission for a foundling into it, did not succeed; and Charles VII., upon that occasion, in letters patent of the year 1445, expressly says, that it is to serve as a receptacle for orphans born in wedlock. It was only permitted to make a collection at the door of the metropolitan cathedral for foundlings, certain persons being there stationed to cry to the passers-by, *Faites bien à ces Pauvres Enfans Trouvés.*

These letters patent continue in the following words to express a sentiment which is that of many

political economists of the present day:—" Si l'on obligeait l'Hôpital du St Esprit à recevoir les Enfans Trouvés, concurrement avec les Orphélins, il y aurait bientôt une grande quantité des prémiers, parceque moult gens feraient moins de difficultés de eux abandonner à pécher quand ils verraient que tels enfans bâtards seraient nourris, et qu'ils n'en auraient pas la charge prémière ni sollicitude."

But the collections made at church-doors were found by no means sufficient, and the parliament of Paris issued several *arrêts*, imposing upon the great proprietors of the country the duty of providing for the maintenance of the children in their jurisdiction. M. de Chateauneuf, in his interesting Memoir, *Sur les Enfans Trouvés*, says, " That in many parts of Europe this system is still followed; that in Austria, for example, each proprietor is called upon to pay 12 florins to the hospital that receives the children abandoned in his territory."

In the year 1536, Francis the First founded, under the denomination of *Enfans Dieu*, and afterwards of *Enfans Rouges*, an hospital to receive children who had become orphans by the death of their parents in the Hôtel Dieu. In 1541, he also allowed the orphans and poor children of the villages of the *Banlieue* of Paris to be admitted into it. But it was not till the year 1638 that any establishment expressly for the reception of foundlings was formed in the capital, though one had existed at Lyons for some time. A lady, by name Madame le Gras, and niece to the Garde des Sceaux Marillac, who re-

sided near St Landri, was the first founder of an establishment of this sort, and in it she received children sent by the public authorities. It was named the *Maison de Couche*, but very soon fell into disrepute, for she found she had attempted more than she was fit for; and the following extract from the Memoirs of Tenon will show the extent of horrible abuse that was the consequence:—"Ses servantes, fatiguées des soins qu'elles donnoient aux enfans, en firent un commerce scandaleux; elles les vendoient à des mendiantes, qui s'en servoient afin d'exciter la charité du public; des nourrices, dont les enfans etoient morts, en achetoient, s'en faisoient teter; plusieurs entr'elles leur donnoient un lait corrompu, ou en prenoit pour en supposer dans les familles; ils ne coutèrent que vingt sols. Des que ces désordres furent connus, on cessa de recourir à un hospice si dangereux: Les enfans déposés furent transportés près Saint Victor; les dons de quelques personnes vertueuses ne suffisoient pas à leur subsistence; le nombre de ces enfans devenu trop grand, on tira au sort ceux qui seroient élèves; les autres étoient abandonnés."

Things were in this miserable state when the virtuous St Vincent de Paule came to the assistance of those persons whose charitable wishes had hitherto been of little or no avail to the poor and helpless beings they wished to succour. He had founded, in 1633, the religious order of the Sisters of Charity, and in 1640 he convoked a meeting of females in

Paris, remarkable for their birth, talents, and piety, before whom he laid the miserable condition of those children whom the crimes and cruelty of their parents had thrown upon the charity of the world. He terminated his statement with this strong appeal:—" Mesdames, vous servez de mères à ces infortunés; mais dans ce moment je vous considère aussi comme leurs juges Les abandonner, c'est les condamner à la mort. Pouvez vous y resoudre?" The exertions of St Vincent de Paule were crowned with success, and the King, Louis XIII., showed his sense of his charitable zeal, by giving a donation of 4000 livres a-year for the establishment, in the Rue St Victor, of a house for the reception of foundlings, and afterwards still farther, by granting for that purpose the Royal Castle of the Bicêtre. In 1641, his widow, Anne of Austria, then regent of the realm in the name of her son, Louis XIV., gave an additional gift of 8000 livres a-year to the same institution. The situation of the Bicêtre, however, was soon discovered not to be adapted for the preservation of such tender beings; they were therefore removed to the Faubourg St Lazare, where the establishment remained till the year 1670, when it was finally removed to the Rue Neuve Notre Dame. It is from this epoch, then, that the true foundation of the Foundling Hospital of Paris should be dated. Various regulations soon organized it into a positive and efficient existence, and the care of the infants was intrusted to the Sisters of Charity instituted by St Vincent de Paule. It was in 1670, also, that

Louis XIV., by letters patent, declared it one of the hospitals of Paris, gave it all the rights and privileges they enjoyed, assigned revenues for its maintenance (for at that period, though its yearly expenditure was 40,000 livres, its revenues did not exceed 12,000), and named an administration to conduct its affairs. The establishment being thus finally constituted, it became next an object to look out for nurses to suckle the children assembled in it. For this purpose persons were appointed to bring nurses from Picardy, Normandy, and Burgundy, to Paris, to receive infants to be carried into the country. Every thing was now conducted in a systematic manner: the children remained in the country till the age of 6 years; they were then brought back to the capital, and placed in a house in the Faubourg St Antoine, to receive the first rudiments of education. Arrived at the age of 10 or 11 years, they were bound out as apprentices; and, finally, they received, at the age of 16, a sum of money to enable them to commence some honest profession. The instructive memoir published in the year 1808, on the Hospice de la Maternité, states, that this order of things remained without change for 153 years, during which time there were received into the hospital 405,474 children. Tenon gives, in his Memoirs, a table of admissions from 1670 to 1786, and it shows, in a remarkable manner, the regular and rapid increase that has been taking place in their numbers. The following is an extract from that table:—

The number of children received in the year

1670, was	312
1680,	890
1690,	1504
1730,	2401
1741,	3388
1752,	4127
1760,	5031
1770,	6918

But the Hospital of Paris soon became a receptacle for children from all parts of the country. The provincial administrations, anxious to get rid of the expense of maintaining the children abandoned in their jurisdiction, encouraged the practice, now become so common, of sending them up to the capital. At least one-third of the children admitted were from the provinces; and to so great a height did this abuse reach, that the parliament found itself under the necessity of making severe laws to prevent it from extending still farther. All persons having public conveyances by land or water, were forbidden, under the penalty of corporal punishment and a fine of 1000 livres, to bring any child to Paris unaccompanied with a certificate, setting forth the name, surname, and residence of the person to whose charge it was to be remitted.

But the benefit that had been so much looked for in the establishment of foundling hospitals was found to be attended with some very questionable results. The children exposed were no longer

merely orphans and illegitimate, but parents began to lose the feelings of parents, and exposed the children born to them in lawful wedlock. These hospitals had therefore become an encouragement to crime and immorality, while the enormous expense they entailed upon the state became at last embarrassing to the government. There seemed now to be no check upon the irregular passions of man, and the continuing to encourage foundling hospitals was only choosing between two evils; for, whilst they prevented the sacrifice of many innocent and helpless beings on the one hand, they at the same time weakened the first principles of morality, and, by their accommodating facilities. presented a powerful temptation to criminal indulgence. In 1779, the king, in a royal edict, expressed his sorrow at the abuses that had of late so rapidly increased, and which promised to become so dangerous in their consequences; and, at the same time, means to check these abuses were pointed out. But enough was not done; the children exposed in the provinces were ordered to be carried to the nearest hospital, and were prohibited from being brought to Paris under a penalty of 1000 livres, and the Marechaussée were directed to use every means of checking what had in reality become a species of contraband commerce. Still even the hospitals themselves, although the king had permitted them, when their own revenues were insufficient, to draw upon his treasury for the necessary sums, encouraged secretly the removal of the children to the capital. There seemed, in fact, no pos-

sibility of checking an evil which every person, instead of assisting to repress, seemed, on the contrary, determined to encourage. M. Necker, in his *Administration des Finances de la France,* justly says, "there are no establishments originating in humanity so attended with drawbacks and inconveniences as hospitals for children. They have undoubtedly prevented many helpless beings from being the victims of the unnatural cruelty of their parents; but foundling hospitals have insensibly come to be looked upon as public institutions in which the sovereign is expected to nourish and maintain the children of the poorer classes of his subjects; and this idea every day gaining ground, the consequence has been, that among the people at large the bonds of duty and paternal affection have been loosened or destroyed. The abuse," he says, "is increasing daily, and its progress will one day embarrass the government; for to remedy the evil by palliatives is difficult, while harsh or extreme measures would be disapproved of, till the evil shall have risen to a height that must strike every one. The more government does to save this deserted race, the less becomes the remorse of the parents, and the greater the extent of abandonment. There are transported every year to Paris more than 2000 children, sent away from different places as articles of merchandize; and of this number there die on the road, or immediately after arrival, nine-tenths." It was on the representation of M. Necker that the *arreté* of the king's council, already spoken of, was promul-

gated; but it proved altogether insufficient for checking an evil which seemed to increase daily, and to baffle every attempt made by the authorities to remove or even to diminish it. At the commencement of the Revolution the cause and increase of the evil began to be accounted for in another way, by supposing a fault in the mode of administration. This opinion was announced from the tribune of the Legislative Assembly in the year 1792; its substance was as follows:—What can be more impolitic or more unjust than this exclusive application of the public charity to foundlings? The hospices are open to them alone, whilst they are shut to the children of the poor;—immoral distinction, which induces the poor to separate themselves for ever from their children, to throw them upon the benevolence of the public, that they may not suffer with themselves all the horrors of want. It is in reality to this cause that must be referred the excessive multiplication of legitimate children that are abandoned. It is this that forces their miserable parents, perhaps even by an excess of attachment for the fruits of a fecundity which they deplore, to steel their hearts to the softer feelings of their nature.

As the storms of the Revolution increased, there was perhaps no establishment that suffered more severely from the reign of anarchy than the Foundling Hospital; yet at first a good many attempts were made to improve the condition of its inmates. A law of the Constituent Assembly, in 1790, ab-

solved the *seigneurs haut-justiciers*, as they were termed, from the charge of maintaining the infants exposed in their territories, and different decrees ordered that the treasury should pay in advance to the hospitals the funds necessary for the support of foundlings. The committee of the same assembly afterwards divided the children to be assisted by the community into two classes; those born of indigent parents, and those who were born out of wedlock. For the former, the *secours à domicile* were to be instituted,—that is to say, the parents were to be assisted in their own houses, to enable them to bring up their children; for the latter, hospices were to be established in each department. By a law of 4th July, 1793, foundlings were named *enfans de la patrie*, and soon after the law of adoption was proposed, though it was not decreed till the 23d March, 1803. Amongst other decrees of the Convention there was one for granting assistance to mothers with young children; and this was made of special application to unmarried females (*filles mères*). Nothing shows the state of immorality that then existed in Paris so strongly as this. These unmarried mothers were publicly panegyrized before the people; and the assistance given was nothing more nor less than an open encouragement to debauchery. Many of them, in coming to receive their allowance, promised to recommence the moment their child was weaned; and others, deeming their *services* not sufficiently well paid, threatened to become barren. If this system, then, was

to be highly deprecated, that which granted an indemnity to such persons as chose to charge themselves with a foundling was deserving of praise. This indemnity, which was 80 livres (£3, 4s.) a-year, for each child under 10 years of age, and a third less for the following years, ceased entirely at the age of 12.*

But, in the meantime, the foundling hospital of Paris was falling into a state of complete ruin; the discredit into which paper-money had fallen prevented nurses from applying for children to suckle, and the hospital in consequence was transformed into a tomb, in which the wretched beings perished by hundreds, victims of the artificial food they received. The same was more or less the case in the provincial towns of France; the minister tried in vain to encourage the practice of adoption, and the government, to use the words of an intelligent author, wished to make gardeners of them,—spoke of bringing them up for the service of the colonies. But these wretched beings asked for nothing but milk; and while people were making fine plans for their education, they, in the meantime, perished with hunger.

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* A decree of the 19th August, 1793, proposed that the price of daily labour should be taken as the basis on which to regulate the payment of this indemnity.

An *arreté* of 23d June, 1796, proposed that the salary of the nurses and persons taking charge of children should be paid according to the price of grain in the chief market-town of the canton.

But the times were not such as to allow of a speedy remedy for such evils. No sooner was one administration secured in its seat than it was displaced to make room for another. How sincere soever, then, any of the administrators might have been in their desire for improvement, no time was afforded them to put their zeal into practice. From the government they had little aid to look for in framing rules for the regulation of the establishments under their charge, and the small number of the inmates who survived the period of childhood were thrown upon the world, and left to their own guidance at the early age of twelve years. In the course of time, as the government became more stable, there seemed some prospect of matters being put into a better train. The *Maternité* speedily rose out of its ruins, and afforded a model for the imitation of the other hospices of the kingdom. As already mentioned, this establishment was at first placed in the convent of the *Val de Grace*, from which, however, it was soon removed to the *Oratoire, Rue d'Enfer*, and ancient convent of *Port Royal, Rue de la Bourbe, Faubourg St Jacques.* The two sections, *d'Accouchement* and *d'Allaitement*, were, in 1816, formed into separate and distinct establishments; the latter of which is now named the Foundling-Hospital, and is situated in the *Rue d'Enfer.*

By a decree of 1811, the nature of the assistance to be given to poor and deserted children throughout the kingdom was definitively fixed, the mode

of affording it pointed out, and the whole placed under suitable restrictions. By this decree children were divided into three classes,—foundlings, abandoned, and orphans. Of these, the two first are supported at the expense of the nation; the different local administrations are charged with the maintenance and expense of the third class. Those infants whose parentage is altogether unknown, or who have been born in an hospice, and whose mothers are unable to maintain them, are called foundlings. Those, again, whose parents are imprisoned or condemned by justice, or have disappeared and deserted them, are entitled *abandoned*. But neither indigence, nor even the natural death of the parents, gives a right of admission into the hospitals destined for such classes. Children in this last situation are accounted orphans, and are at the exclusive charge of the hospitals or bureaux of charity of the different departments. The expenses of foundling hospitals are divided into two distinct heads,—interior and exterior;—the former, comprehending clothing, food, and education, is defrayed by the establishments themselves; the latter comprehends the payment of nurses in the country, and a recompense to those persons who have taken any children under their charge. It is defrayed by government; an annual sum of 4,000,000 francs (£160,000) having, by a decree of 1811, been allowed for this purpose. If this sum be not sufficient, the surplus expense must be made up from the funds of the hospices themselves. Though the

decree of 1811 declares, that there shall be only one hospice for the reception of foundlings in an arrondissement, yet, in the cases above-mentioned, where the allowances and revenues are insufficient to meet the expenditure, the prefects are warranted to call upon the other hospitals in the arrondissement or department to pay part of the charge. The four millions allotted by the treasury form a burden upon what are termed the *centimes ordinaires* of the departments, and are exclusively applied to the out-door expenses of the establishments. To explain what is meant by the phrase *centimes ordinaires*, a short digression will be necessary. A law of the 3d April, 1791, allowed Paris, and any other cities of France which should be in want of money for their general expenses and those of their hospitals, to lay a statement before the directory of their department, which was empowered, should the case demand it, to authorise, *for this time only*,* the said towns "*à faire perçevoir par emargement sur les roles des impositions ordinaires de* 1791, *et au marc la livre des dites impositions*," the sum required. The laws of the 28th Pluviose, and 25th Ventose of the same year, conferred a permanent right upon municipalities to impose *centimes additionnels*, with this sole restriction, that they should not exceed five *centimes pour franc de principal.*

* Guy Coquille says,—"C'est un règle en France que l'impôt une fois mis ne se retranche jamais."

These five centimes afterwards obtained the name of *centimes ordinaires.* Another tax was levied, under the title of *centimes facultatifs,* which, however, required the express authority of government; but this was not difficult to obtain. Nothing, indeed, could be more agreeable to the views of government; "for the system of Bonaparte was to regard all money he could obtain as destined solely to extend his own conquests, and embellish the city of Paris, so as to render it the capital of Europe. After drawing from the provinces all he could for the general expenses of the state, he left it to themselves to find the means of discharging their own expenses. The more he augmented the numbers of his armies the more need had he of money, and his manner of obtaining this consisted *à pousser une partie des dépenses générales dans les dépenses départementales, et à piller les communes au profit du Tresor.*"*

It is the duty of the general council of a department to attend to the manner in which these centimes are levied. The prefect, at the commencement of the session, is required to lay before it a detailed report of the presumed expenses of the foundling and abandoned children; and the council, taking this into consideration, proceeds to vote the sum and the manner in which it is to be raised. This vote, as well as the report of the prefect, are

* Dupin, *Lois des Communes,* p. 213.

transmitted to the minister of the interior for his sanction. The prefect then assigns to the different *communes* their contingents, and these are paid into the hands of the receiver-general of the department.

From what has been said, then, it will be evident, that the revenues of foundling hospitals are in a different situation from those of ordinary hospitals, and that the funds of the one cannot be applied to the service of the other. Still it frequently happens that the revenues assigned for the maintenance of foundling hospitals are insufficient; in which case the other hospitals may assist in making up the deficiency. Thus, for example, in 1822 the patrimonial revenues of the Hospice des Enfans Trouvés of Paris amounted to 254,716 francs, (£10,191,) and the allowance out of the department-funds to 400,000, (£16,000,) making a total of 654,716 francs (£26,189.) The expenditure for the same year was 1,401,959 francs, (£56,078,) exceeding the revenues by 747,243 (£29,889.) Payment of this large deficiency was made by the general hospital-administration from their savings in the management of the hospitals and hospices of Paris, which amounted to 891,206 francs (£35,648.)

The regulations respecting the guardianship (*tutelle*) of children received into public hospitals were fixed by the law of 4th February, 1804. By this law, children of whatever description, upon being admitted into hospitals, are placed under the guardianship of the hospital administrative com-

missions; the members of which appoint one of their number to exercise the function of tutor to the child, while they themselves form the council of guardianship (*conseil de tutelle.*) When a child leaves the hospital to be apprenticed out in any distant part of the country, the commission may by a simple act, *visa'd* by the prefect, make over the guardianship to the hospice nearest to the place where the child is to reside. The guardianship of children admitted into hospitals lasts till their majority or emancipation by marriage or otherwise.* The administrative commissions possess, with respect to minors under their guardianship, the same powers as the father and mother. Their emancipation must be granted by the tutor after advising with the administrative commission.

A decree of 1811 placed all children brought up at the expense of the state at its future disposal: they were in general at the command of the minister of marine. To prevent any confusion that might arise from this state of matters, the minister of the interior fixed three points: 1st, That such families as paid all the expenses of education, and in that case only, should be entitled to reclaim any of their children that had not completed their 10th year; 2d, That this right of reclamation should

* The words are,—" La tutelle des enfans admis dans les hospices durera jusqu'à leur majorité ou émancipation par marriage ou autrement." Liv. i. tit. x. of the code civil, says, " Le mineur est émancipé de plein droit par marriage."

remain suspended from the moment of their entering upon their 11th year until the completion of their 12th; after which, if, in the meantime, the minister of the marine had not disposed of them, it again reverted to them. At present, however, the law of conscription does not recognize any difference between children brought up in hospitals and the other children of the kingdom. It appears probable that the opportunities thus afforded to parents of recovering their children, when grown up and fit for labour, operated frequently very powerfully in causing them to be exposed; and in this view the regulations of the decree of 1811, obliging those who reclaim their children to reimburse the hospital for the expense of their education, have been productive of considerable benefit in doing away with the temptation of so selfish a calculation. By the *Code Special de la Maternité*, no search is to be made after any child reclaimed by its parents or family until they have consigned the sum of 30 francs; after that is done, the description of the child is looked for in the registers of the house: should it be found to be dead, 20 francs are returned; if living, the whole sum will be retained, as payment of part of the regular charge for education. Whoever reclaims a child must bring a certificate of good character and honesty. Before receiving the child, the reclaimer must be bound to fulfil all the obligations entered into by the hospitals in its behalf.

Before proceeding to enter into a particular de-

tail of the regulations concerning the admission and education of children in foundling hospitals, it may not be improper to notice the dispositions of the *code penal* on the subject of their exposure. By art. 348. Ceux qui auront porté à un hospice un enfant au-dessous de l'âge de sept ans accomplis, qui leur aurait été confié afin qu'ils en prissent soin ou pour toute autre cause, seront punis d'un emprisonnement de six semaines à six mois, et d'une amende de seize francs à cinquante francs ; toutefois, aucune peine ne sera prononcée, s'ils n'étaient pas obligés de pourvoir gratuitement à la nourriture et à l'entretien de l'enfant et si personne n'y avait pourvu.

Art. 349.—Ceux qui auront exposé et délaissé dans un lieu solitaire un enfant au-dessons de l'âge de sept ans accomplis ; ceux qui auront donné l'ordre de l'exposer ainsi, si cet ordre a été executé, seront, pour ce seul fait, condamnés à un emprisonnement de six mois à deux ans, et à une amende de seize francs à deux cents francs.

Art. 350.—La peine portée au précédent article sera de deux ans à cinq ans, et l'amende de cinquante francs à quatre cents francs, contre les tuteurs et tutrices, instituteurs ou institutrices de l'enfant exposé et délaissé par eux ou par leur ordre.

Art. 351.—Si, par suite de l'exposition et du délaissement prévus par les art. 349 et 350, l'enfant est demeuré, mutilé, ou estropié, l'action sera considerée comme blessure volontaire à lui faite par la personne qui l'a exposé et délaissé ; et si la mort

s'en est suivie, l'action sera considerée comme meurtre: au premier cas, les coupables subiront la peine applicable aux blessures volontaires, et au second cas celle du meurtre.

Art. 352.—Ceux qui auront exposé et délaissé en un lieu non solitaire un enfant au-dessous de l'âge de sept ans accomplis seront punis d'un emprisonnement de trois mois à un an, et d'une amende de seize francs à cent francs.

Art. 353.—Le délit prévu par le précédent article sera puni d'un emprisonnement de six mois à deux ans, et d'une amende de vingt-cinq à deux cent francs, s'il a été commis par les tuteurs et tutrices, instituteurs ou institutrices de l'enfant.

The account that follows of the regulations adopted in foundling hospitals is more especially applicable to that of Paris; but in almost all the important points there is no difference between the hospitals of the capital and those of the provincial towns. The differences that do exist arise from peculiarities in the character of the local administration, and, when of any importance, they will be particularly mentioned.

In every hospital for the reception of foundlings there should be a species of cradle, turning upon a pivot, in the external wall of the building, and a bell beside it. Within twenty-four hours after the infant is taken into the house, it is the duty of the civil officer to examine it, and any papers that may be found along with it. He then draws out his

procès verbal, which is registered in the registers of the *état civil* at the *mairie* of the arrondissement. The register of the child's birth contains its name and surname, if they are known; but, if so, they are kept secret, and another name is given by the house. A parchment, containing the name and the age of the child, is attached to its arm, where it constantly remains. When duly registered, the infants are removed to the *crêche*,* where they are attended by Sisters of Charity, and by a certain number of *berceuses:* the latter are in the proportion of one to four infants, and receive a salary of 100 francs a-year. Besides this, a franc is paid for every child that quits the *crêche*, and the sum collected from this source is regularly divided among the *berceuses*, in proportion to their deserts. Four milk-nurses, also, who receive double the ordinary salary, are attached to the *crêche*, to give suck to such infants as the medical officer may point out. Every morning, upon his visit to the *crêche*, the *officier de santé* determines what infants may be fit to be given to the house-nurses (*nourrices sédentaires*), or to be sent into the country. If he finds any of them with suspicion of syphilitic symptoms, the child and its nurse are removed to the Venereal Hospital; and, in like manner, any child afflicted with bad cutaneous diseases is sent to the Hospital of St Louis.

* The word *crêche* literally means crib. It is reserved for infants just born.

The regular salary of the sedentary nurses, as they are termed, in contradistinction to the *nourrices de campagne*, is 7 francs 50 cent. (6s. 3d.) a month. Besides this, they receive two francs once a month, when they are allowed to spend a day out of the house. They are likewise entitled to certain articles of dress. No nurse is permitted, on any account, to take the child she nurses into her bed; it must always sleep alone.

As far as that is possible, every child admitted into a foundling hospital is sent to the country. For this purpose they are given to nurses who come up to the capital and other towns to receive them, and the mode of conveyance is by spring waggons. These nurses must be examined by the medical officer, as to their state of health and the quantity and quality of their milk. If the children happen not to have been vaccinated in the hospital, the nurses are bound to have this done within the term of three months; and unless a certificate to that effect is then produced, they are not entitled to draw the salary. Upon presenting this certificate, the nurses receive a franc and a half. If the children suffer from bad health in the country, and require to be brought back to Paris, they are then placed in the orphan-hospitals.

Since the year 1818, every child, before leaving the hospital to go to the country, must have a collar round its neck, fastened in such a way that it cannot be removed. This collar consists of a cord of silk, the two ends of which are connected by a piece of thin tin, stamped on the one side with a

head of St Vincent de Paule, and on the other with the date of the child's exposure, and the number referring to the register of the house. No certificate whatever can be given to a nurse for the child she has in charge, except upon examination of this collar; and it must be proved that the collar is still attached before any nurse can receive her salary.

The nurses have, since the year 1819, been chosen and brought to the hospital by persons named *preposés*, nominated by the general hospital and administrative councils. It is a part of their duty to pay the nurses, and they are therefore required to furnish proper security. The amount of this security, where the sum of which the *preposé* has the command does not exceed 12,000 francs a-year (£480), is 3000 francs (£120); if it be paid in money, it is placed in the Mont de Piété, and 5 per cent. interest is regularly allowed to the *preposé* as long as it remains there. He receives a commission of 5 per cent. upon all sums defrayed by the administration and paid by him.

The nurses, upon their departure to the country with children, receive a sum, calculated according to the distance, to defray the expenses of food and lodging: their transport is effected by the waggons of the hospice. The sums are as follows:

	During the months of			
	March, April, May, June, October, November,		Jan., Feb., July, Aug., Sept., December.	
	francs.	cents.	francs.	cents.
Within 10 leagues,	3	0	4	0
From 10 to 15 leagues inclusive,	4	0	5	33
From 15 to 25 ditto,	5	0	6	66
From 26 to 35 ditto,	6	0	8	0
From 36 to 45 ditto,	7	0	9	33
From 46 to 55 ditto,	8	0	10	66
From 56 to 65 ditto,	9	0	12	0
From 66 to 75 ditto,	10	0	13	33

These are the allowances for children at the breast; for such as have been weaned, 75 centimes (7½d.), are allowed for each day they are on the journey.

The monthly salary of the nurses,—the recompenses they receive,—the allowances made for vaccination and *chaussure*,—and the indemnity given when the child has completed the age of 12 years, are all fixed on the following footing, by a réglement of the council in 1822. The payments are made every three months:—

Children from one day to one year, by month; 8 fr.
from one year to two years, ditto, 6
from three to seven years, ditto; 5
from eight to twelve, ditto, 4*

* To compare with the department of the *Seine*, the following are the sums granted for the maintenance of foundlings in the department *De l'Aisne*; the principal towns of which are,

'Every nurse to whom has been committed the charge of a child, while it is not yet a month old, receives, upon its attaining the age of 15 months, a recompense of 20 francs. The following recompenses also are given :—

For every child that has attained	3 months,	8 fr.	25 c.
Ditto, . . .	6 ditto,	6	0
Ditto, . . .	9 ditto,	6	0

At each delivery of clothes for the children, the nurse receives 1 franc 25 cents. for *chaussure*, and at vaccinatiion she receives one franc and a half.

St Quentin, with a population of 17,661; Laon, of 7358; and Soissons, of 7483 inhabitants.

The payments are monthly :

1st Age,	1st year, . .	7 fr.	0
	2d, . . .	6	0
2d Age,	—3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th years,	5	50
3d Age,	7th and 8th years, .	4	0
	9th and 10th, . . .	3	75
	11th and 12th, . . .	3	50

In addition to the above, indemnities of 18 and 50 francs are granted to the nurses or other persons who are proved to have done their duty to the children under their charge.

As stated in a former part of this work, the payment of the nurses is defrayed by the department. The sum required for this purpose, which, in 1812, did not amount to 40,000 francs, has gradually increased, till, in 1823, it was less than 101,430 for the support of 1513 children. The average cost of each child to the department in 1824 was from 68 to 69 francs.

Whoever has brought up a child to the age of 12 years, receives at that time an indemnity of 50 francs; the same sum is paid to the person with whom he may be placed at that age, provided that person will undertake to clothe him, make him take his first communion, and keep him at least three years to learn any trade. This indemnity the prefects of departments have the right of diminishing, if it shall appear to them exorbitant.*

The children sent to the country are required to be what is termed *abonné* to the physicians, surgeons, or *officiers de santé* of the neighbourhood; that is to say, they must have a fixed medical person to attend them in case of sickness. The allowances to professional men attending in this way are 75 centimes (7½d.) every three months, or three francs a-year (2s. 6d.) for each child; two francs for vaccination, and half a franc for visiting each nurse before her departure for the capital.

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* The minister, in his circular of the 14th March, 1801, (23 *Ventose* IX.) addressed to the prefects, very properly insisted on the necessity of not paying nurses too high for the maintenance of children intrusted to them, His reasons we give in his own words:—"Votre attention se portera tout entière sur la fixation des mois de nourrice. Presque partout leur salaire a été trop élevé, et l'on s'est généralement ecarté de l'arreté du 20 Mars 1797 (30 Ventose an. V.) Sans doute il faut un salaire suffisant aux nourrices; mais il ne le faut disproportionné; car, dès ce moment, on excite la cupidité, on détermine une mère de famille à sacrifier son propre enfant, ou à lui faire partager avec l'adoptif une nourriture que la nature avait exclusivement réservée au premier."

A nurse, on leaving the hospice with a sucking child, receives four pounds of bread; with a weaned child, two pounds. She is regularly paid her salary every three months, and is supplied with clothes for the child till it has attained its eighth year. These clothes are of the following description :—

Layette.	Demi-maillot.
9 Couches	4 Couches
3 Langes de laine	2 Langes de laine
3 Langes piqués en toile	2 Langes piqués
4 Chemises à brassières en toile	1 Chemise à brassière
2 Brassières de laine	1 Brassière de laine
1 Calotte de laine	1 Calotte de laine
4 Beguins	1 Beguin
2 Bonnets d'Indienne	1 Fichu de toile
4 Fichus de toile	1 Couverture
1 Couverture de laine	

1*ère* Veture, (*for Children of nine Months.*)

4 Beguins	2 Langes de laine
2 Bonnets d'Indienne	1 Jupon
4 Chemises de veture	1 Corsage
4 Fichus de calicot	1 Robe
2 Couches	2 Paires de bas de laine

2*me* Veture, (*for Children from twenty-one to twenty-four Months.*)	3*me* Veture, (*for Children three Years old.*)
2 Beguins	2 Beguins
2 Bonnets d'Indienne	2 Bonnets d'Indienne
2 Fichus de calicot	2 Fichus de calicot
2 Chemises	2 Chemises
1 Robe de Saint-Lo	1 Robe de Saint-Lo
1 Robe de vestipoline	1 Robe de vestipoline
2 Paires de bas de laine	2 Paires de bas de laine

4*me* Veture, (*for Children four Years old.*)	5*me* Veture, (*for Children five Years old.*)
2 Beguins	2 Bonnets d'Indienne
2 Bonnets d'Indienne	2 Fichus de calicot

2 Fichus de calicot	2 Chemises
2 Chemises	1 Robe de Saint-Lo
1 Robe de Saint-Lo	1 Robe de vestipoline
1 Robe de vestipoline	2 Paires de bas de laine
2 Paires de bas de laine	

6me VETURE, (*for Children six Years old.*)

BOYS.	GIRLS.
1 Bonnet de coton bleu	2 Bonnets d'Indienne
2 Chemises	2 Fichus de calicot
1 Veste de drap gris	2 Chemises
1 Gilet de drap gris	1 Robe de Saint-Lo
1 Pantalon de drap gris	1 Robe de vestipoline
2 Paires de bas de laine	2 Paires de bas de laine.

If the child dies, or is taken out of the hands of the nurse, she is bound to return the different articles of clothing, and, for each that is not returned, a proportional part of her salary is retained.

While the children are in the hospice their diet is regulated according to their age and strength. Till they have attained the age of three months it consists of nothing but milk. The infants in the *créche* receive till the third day, if they have not evacuated the meconium, lukewarm water sweetened with sugar, and after that time syrop of chicory, (*syrop de chicorée,*) with the oil of sweet almonds, to the quantity of one ounce in 24 hours. After taking milk, the child's mouth is always washed with sugar and water; and in case there be aphthæ, they are touched with a pencil of linen dipped in lemon-juice, and the mouth is then rinced with barley-sugar water. Children till the age of six months receive

1 Chopin of milk.
1 Ounce five drachms of bread for panado.
Do. do. of vermicelli or bread, for *crême de pain.*
1 Ounce 2 drachms of sugar.

For children above six months of age,

1 Chopin of milk.
3 Ounces of bread for panado; soup.
1 Ounce 5 drachms of vermicelli or bread for *crême de pain.*
1 Ounce 2 drachms of sugar.

For weaned children,

1 Chopin of milk.
9 Ounces of bread for panado; soup, &c.
3 Ounces of dressed meat (6 ounces raw.)

The Foundling Hospital of Paris is intended for the reception of children under the age of two years; no child above that age is admitted; or, if placed at the door, and necessarily taken in, it is sent immediately to the Orphan Hospital. Though the actual number of children annually received into this hospital is very great, yet, as they are sent as soon as possible to the country, it is evident that the number of beds is by no means in proportion to that number:

Number of beds,	Children's Cradles.	Beds for Nurses and older Children.	Total.
Crêches for healthy children,	100		100.
Weaned children,	20	10	30
Infirmary,	80		80
Country nurses,		90	90
Sedentary nurses,		30	30
Total,	200	130	330

The moyement in the hospital for the year 1822 was—

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Existing on the 1st of January, 1822,	63	73	136
Entered during the year,	2626	2588	5214
Sent to their parents,	48	59	107
Sent to nurse,	1822	1924	3746
Sent to the Orphan Hospital,	23	27	50
Sent to other hospitals,	27	32	59
Died,	683	538	1221
Remaining on the 31st December, 1822,	86	81	167
Mortality,	1 in $3\frac{81}{100}$	1 in $4\frac{70}{100}$	1 in $4\frac{24}{100}$

With the exception of 91, all the children admitted in 1822 were newly born,—183 were brought to the hospital without any information,—909 with registers of birth, which registers proved, that 193 were born in lawful wedlock,—1680 came from the Lying-in Hospital,—128 from the other hospitals of Paris,—87 from the prefecture of police,—3225 were exposed at the gate of the hospice without registers of birth, but with notes indicating at least

the name of their mothers. The predominating diseases were, induration, icterus, gastro-enteritis, diarrhœa, and ophthalmia. Those children afflicted with the last-mentioned malady are removed to an infirmary established a year or two ago specially for that purpose: the bed-curtains are of green stuff, the walls are of the same colour, even the glass of the windows is stained green.

In the month of December, 1821, a complete inspection* was made of all the children under twelve years of age connected with these institutions by the physicians and surgeons of the administration, the result of which proved that there existed in the country 12,716 children, of whom 5796 were boys, and 6920 girls. Of the mass of facts brought to light in consequence of the inquiries made by command of the administration, the following may be extracted as interesting:—Amongst the whole number only 87 children were found ill-lodged and ill-fed. Out of 4341 children under seven years of age, 1736 were learning a trade, 1507 were learning to read and write, 758 were in bad health, and 144 were afflicted with infirmities. Of these there were lame, . . . 12

One-eyed, . . 19

* As a proof of the abuse that always will exist, even in the best-regulated institutions, it may be mentioned, that this inspection had the effect of recovering 800,000 francs (L.32,000), which had been paid for children that never existed, or that had been continued on the lists long after their decease.

Maimed,	54
Afflicted with hernia,	29
Blind,	10
Deaf,	3
Paralytic,	6

The provinces of France in which the children are mostly placed are the Isle of France, Picardy, French Flanders, and Artois, Normandy, Champagne and Orleannois, Bourgogne and Nivernois.

When M. Necker published his work upon the finances of France, he calculated the number of foundlings in the kingdom to be 40,000; but the number has increased so rapidly since that time as to be now 138,000. The rate of the increase may be learned from the following table of M. de Chateauneuf:—

In 1784 they were	40,000
1798,	51,000
1809,	69,000
1815,	84,500
1816,	87,700
1817,	92,200
1818,	98,000
1819,	96,000
1st Jan. 1821,	105,700
1822,	138,500

At the same time, in looking at this increase, consideration must also be had to the increased po-

pulation as the only correct mode of forming a proper estimate of the matter. At the period M. Necker wrote, he reckoned the population of the realm at 26,000,000, and the proportion of foundlings was 1 : 650. At present the population is rated as high as 32,000,000 ;* the proportion, therefore, is 1 : 231. Making every allowance, then, the proportion of foundlings has very nearly tripled,—an evil which must in a great measure be ascribed to the peculiar situation in which the country has been placed since the period of the Revolution.

By the *Annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes*, the total number of births in France, in the year 1824, was 984,152. Taking the total number of foundlings, then, at 138,000, they would be to the births as 1 to 7½ nearly. But it is evident that this is an erroneous calculation ; for the 138,000 foundlings comprehend not only those exposed during the year, but all those which have been exposed in preceding years, and which are still supported by public charity ; the proportion given, therefore, is exaggerated. M. de Chateauneuf rates it, for the year 1821, as 1 in 28, or about 3,52 per cent.

To endeavour to ascertain the causes that produce the difference in the numbers of exposed and abandoned children in different parts of a country, forms

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* 31,845,428. Vid. *Bulletin des Lois*, No 154, containing the royal ordonnance upon the authentic tables of the population of the realm.

a subject of very curious inquiry. In prosecuting our researches upon this subject, many interesting facts present themselves; and in every country proofs may be found in favour of Mr Malthus's doctrine, that the number of foundlings is affected by the abundance or scarcity of the necessaries of life. M. de Chateauneuf has some ingenious speculations to prove that the abandonment of children is the effect, not so much of immorality as of misery and poverty; and, as his remarks present a very good view of the general state of France, with respect to the matter in question, it may not be out of place to give the substance of them here.

Having obtained from the administration a table of all the foundlings existing in the several departments of France on the 1st January, 1821, he considered them with reference to the provinces, and these, again, he divided into two classes,—those of the centre, and those of the frontiers. To use his own words, in the first class are Berri, la Touraine, le Bourbonnais, la Marche, le Limousin, l'Auvergne, countries little productive, where industry languishes; where the population lives ill, and where emigration is habitual. The second class comprehends the provinces of la Bretagne, la Normandie, la Picardie, la Flandre, la Provence, le Dauphiné, le Languedoc, where provisions are abundant, existence easy; where are our manufactures, our seaports, our fortresses, all our great cities, Brest, Toulon, Marseille, Bordeaux, Rouen, Lille, Metz, Strasbourg,—populous and commercial towns con-

taining a multitude of strangers, soldiers, sailors, workmen, and the active centres of industry, wealth, and corruption. These provinces, with 20,000,000 of inhabitants, 600,000 births, and three-fourths of France comprised in their vast territory, scarcely give a greater proportional number of foundlings than the 10,000,000 of inhabitants spread through the central provinces, in which Paris and Lyons, which themselves furnish 6000, are not included. The following is the proportion they bear to one another:

FRONTIER PROVINCES.

Population.	Births in 1821.	Foundlings in 1821.	Prop. in 100.
19,000,000	607,400	17,251	2.84

CENTRAL PROVINCES.

10,000,000	310,507	8665	2.79

But the above calculations of M. de Chateauneuf have regard only to the number of children deserted by their parents; the next object of inquiry then comes to be, how far are these children illegitimate, or does there exist an invariable proportion between illegitimacy and desertion?*

* The *Annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes* for 1826 gives the following table of the number of legitimate and illegitimate births for a series of years in all France:—

That a great increase in the number of illegitimate births must produce a proportional increase in he number of deserted children by no means follows; nor is it to be supposed that the number of foundlings must naturally diminish with the decrease of natural births. In wealthy provinces, in which corruption is great, the wealth of the inhabitants in very many cases allows them to retain and support their illegitimate offspring: thus, for example, in Alsace, Lorraine, Bretagne, Normandie, and Franche-Comté, out of 15,900 illegitimate children, scarcely more than one-third (5550) are brought to the hospices, the mothers being able to bring up the others themselves.* In the poorer

Years.	BIRTHS.			
	Legitimate.		Illegitimate.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Total for 1817,	456,570	425,002	31,887	30,666
Total for 1818,	440,972	414,332	30,216	28,335
Total for 1819,	475,651	446,606	33,660	32,001
Total for 1820,	460,463	432,121	33,915	32,434
Total for 1821,	463,069	432,803	34,552	32,934
Total for 1822,	465,274	437,774	35,820	33,928
Total for 1823,	460,807	433,552	35,710	33,952
Total for 1824,	471,490	441,488	36,280	34,894

* We find, from the *Annuaires de Verronnais*, that the births in the *Département de la Moselle*, for 1825 and 1826, were as follows:—

provinces, on the contrary, of Orleannais, Auvergne, le Limousin, la Marche, and le Bourbonnais, fully three-fourths of the illegitimate children are exposed. The exposition of children, therefore, appears much more attributable to want and misery than to immorality. In many provinces, in which the number of illegitimate births is very high, the proportion of foundlings is notwithstanding very small, and in others, in which the number of illegitimate births is small, that of foundlings is considerable; thus, in French Flanders, the proportion of illegitimate births is 9.43 in 100, that of foundlings 2.76 in 100. In Alsace the proportions are 6.03 in 100 and 1.07 in 100; in Lorraine, 6.52 and 1.60 in 100; in the province of the Bourbonnais, on the contrary, the proportion of illegitimate births is 5.87 in 100, and yet that of foundlings is 5.02 in 100. In Auvergne the former is 4.47, the latter 3.

It is a matter of difficulty to account for the diversity in the number of illegitimate births in different parts of a country. This seems to depend upon no circumstances connected either with the character of the people or of the region, and the results are often very different from what might have been *à priori* expected. In French Flanders, Picardy,

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	1825.	1826.
Legitimate,	11,904	12,796
Natural children acknowledged,	674	490
Not acknowledged, .	36	63

The proportion acknowledged here is very great.

Normandy, Bearn, Provencé, Franche-Comté, Lyonnais, Maine, and Orleannais, the mean proportion of natural births to the total number born is 8·80 : 100; while in Aunis, Languedoc, Auvergne, Berri, Bretagne, and Poitou, it is no more than 3.87 : 100. If the extent of immorality, therefore, is to be estimated from the number of illegitimate births, many of the northern provinces are more immoral than the southern; for in French Flanders the proportion is 9.43 : 100; in Normandy, 8.48; in Picardy and Artois, 8.44, while in Languedoc it is 4.25 : 100; in Poitou only 2.54 : 100.

Taking countries, however, instead of provinces, it may be said that, generally speaking, the proportion of illegitimate births increases in going southwards; but it is remarkable, at the same time, that this progression does not hold with respect to foundlings; these are fully as numerous in general, and frequently more numerous, in the north than in the south of Europe, as the following table will show:—

	Mean Births.	Foundlings.	Proportion to 100.
Lisbon, (from 1815 to 1819,)	7800	2050	26,28
Madrid,	4300	1100	25,58
Barcelona, (1820,)	2024	437	21,57
Rome, (1801 to 1807,)	4300	1200	27,90
Paris, (1815 to 1821,)	24,240	5070	20,91
Brussels, (1816 to 1821,)	3200	470	14,68
Vienna, (1815 to 1821,)	12,800	3000	23,43
Petersbourg, (1820,)	8000	3600	45,00
Moscow,	6800	1900	27,94
County of Nice, (1802,)	3300	200	6,06
Savoy,	9600	560	5,83
Palermo, (1824,)	5031	597	11,86

Amongst the causes to which M. de Chateauneuf refers the undeniable increase of illegitimate births in France, is the present state of the marriage-laws, which, he says, seem to throw obstacles instead of encouragement in the way of marriage by the multitude of acts required, and the various expenses incurred for procuring these acts.

In the memoir prefacing the work of M. de Chateauneuf, the following statement of illegitimate births in fifteen departments of France, frontier, maritime, manufacturing, or without any particular branch of industry, is given. These departments are,

Nord,	Vienne,
Pas de Calais,	Gironde,
Seine Inférieure,	Bouches du Rhone,
Ille-et-Vilaine,	Isere,
Loire Inférieure	Bas Rhin,
Indre et Loire,	Rhone,
Loiret,	Moselle.
Haute Vienne.	

In these the number of births for 1817 and 1818 was 435,268, of which 37,036 were illegitimate, giving a proportion of 1 : 11½. Separating and grouping the departments where features of resemblance are observable, the results that follow are obtained. In the departments of the Rhone, Seine Inférieure, and Nord, the proportion is about one-eighth, (15,443 in 124,224;) in those simply mari-

time, without being manufacturing, as Gironde, Bouches du Rhone, and Loire Inferieure, one-tenth (7185 in 71,079.) One-fourth only in the departments of the Moselle and Bas-Rhin, where, however, there are numerous garrisons. 1 : $15\frac{1}{10}$ in l'Isere; and, lastly, in the Haute Vienne, Vienne, Indre et Loire, Ille-et-Vilaine, united, 1 : $27\frac{1}{3}$; the last taken separately only gives a proportion of 1 : 53 (609 in 32,162). These and other statistical observations, however, are as yet more a matter of curiosity and interest than of application; for the many discrepances that occur, and the variations that are constantly taking place from year to year, prevent any determinate result from being founded upon them. In large towns the difficulty is not so great; and the cause of the number of illegitimate births cannot well be mistaken. The corruption of manners has there reached its height, and produces effects which increase or diminish with the cause.*

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* The following are comparative tables of births in Lisbon and Oporto from 1815 to 1819 inclusive :—

		1815.	1816.	187.	1819.	1820.
Lisbon,	Legit.	5388	5373	5545	5230	5310
	Illegit.	2095	2022	2024	2095	2050
Oporto,	Legit.	1626	1679	1706	1715	1756
	Illegit.	1863	1801	1863	1833	1847

In Lisbon, therefore, the illegitimate births form more than a third of the total births,—in Oporto they surpass them in

In Paris, in 1823, the total number of births was 27,070, of which more than one-third were illegitimate. Of 21,000 women delivered at the Maison d'Accouchement in the space of ten years, 17,000 were unmarried. The average proportion of illegitimate births may be stated in

Paris,	1 : $3\frac{1}{6}$
Stockholm,	1 : 3
Strasbourg,	1 : $4\frac{1}{12}$
Diocese of Piacenza,	1 : $4\frac{7}{10}$
Marseille,	1 : 5
Dresden,	1 : 5
Stuttgart,	1 : $6\frac{8}{10}$
Berlin,	1 : 7
Hambourg,	1 : 9
Palermo, average of 10 years,	1 : $9\frac{5}{10}$
Copenhagen,	1 : 11
In all Wirtemburg,	1 : $11\frac{1}{10}$
All France,	1 : 13*
Sweden,	1 : 20
Finland,	1 : 22

There are few subjects connected with the history of the human race of more interesting inquiry than

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number. The former city, out of a population of 210,000, has 70,000 bastards,—the latter, out of a population of 60,000, has more than 30,000.—*London and Paris Observer, 17th June,* 1827.

* In every part of Europe illegitimacy has been increasing in a rapid ratio. This increase has not been confined to large towns, where the greatest corruption is to be looked for. The following tables will sufficiently prove this. They give the proportion of illegitimate children to the total number of births in the cities of Stuttgart and Berlin for a series of years:—

the causes of the great mortality in the early periods of existence. M. Daubenton calculates that one-third of the human race is extinguished before the age of one year; and, before eight years, one-half. Haller was of opinion that one-third of the human race die in youth;* in this Buffon agreed with him. Süssmilch, from numerous observations, was led to think, that from birth to five years there died, out of 1000,—*in the country*, 382; *in great towns*, 464. From birth to 15 years,—*in the country*, 457; *in towns*, 511.† Even allowing this calcu-

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STUTTGART.

In the years	Born.	Illegitimate.	Proportion.
1700 to 1719	9508	224	1 : 42,4
1750 1769	13,753	470	1 : 29,2
1770 1779	6521	217	1 : 30,0
1780 1789	7054	420	1 : 16,7
1790 1799	7331	586	1 : 12,5
1800 1809	7611	717	1 : 16,1
1810 & 1811	1568	230	1 : 6,8

Versuch einer Topographie der Stadt Stuttgart, p. 55.

BERLIN.

In 5 years, 1789—1793, were born	26,572.	Illegit. 2824=1 : 9=10 per cent.		
1794—1798,	30,165.	3006	1 : 9	10
1799—1803,	31,538.	3800	1 : 8	12
1804—1808,	30,459.	4941	1 : 6	16
In 4 years, 1819—1822,	26,971.	4319	1 : 6	16
	145,705.	18,890	1 : 7	13 per cent.

Vid. *Caspers Beiträge zur Medicinischen Statistik*, s. 170.

* Comment. in Boerh. iii. § 416, p. 630.

† Göttliche Ordnung, u. s. w. 4. Aufl. ii. s. 313-15.

lation to be carried too far, if applied under existing circumstances, it must be allowed, that at one time it was by no means exaggerated; for, though the mortality of children in general has diminished considerably within the last 30 years, still very rarely does the number of deaths between 0 and 10 years come under one-third of the total number of births, and often it reaches to one-half. In the latter half of last century, in

Vienna, the loss on 100 was .	55,578
Berlin, . .	54,578
Sweden, . . .	50,044
Paris, . .	52,501
London, . . .	48,453
Provence, . .	47,024
Petersbourg, . .	41,974

Since that time, however, a very considerable diminution in the amount of mortality has taken place in many towns. Dr Heberden, in a paper contained in the London Medical Transactions, says, "That in that city, during the former half of the last century, the proportion of deaths to christenings amongst young children was as 3 : 2, that for the latter half it was as 5 : 4, and since 1800 as 12 : 15. The difference was principally observed in children from 0 to 2 years of age; but it is a remarkable fact, that, notwithstanding the diminution of mortality at this tender age, there was no proportional increase, if, indeed, there was any increase at all, in

the number of persons who attain the age of 20.* The probable cause of this has been pointed out in a former part of the work. Paris and Fonblanque, in their Medical Jurisprudence, assert, that out of 1000 children, there die in London, during the first 10 years, no less than 650. The total number of deaths in that city from 1795 to 1800, inclusive, was 116,838, of which 36,945 were children under two years of age,—about 30 per cent. For the years

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* M. le Dr Sainte-Marie of Lyons, a gentleman to whom I am indebted for a good deal of information upon the subject of the present work, observes in his Introduction to Medical Police, "That if children now escape the small-pox, they more easily sink under other maladies formerly less general and fatal." He proceeds to prove his opinion by the following facts:—From the mortality-registers of Glasgow it would appear, that from the year 1783 to 1813, half of which period vaccination was in common practice, the mortality of children of 10 years of age was nearly the same, and that those who formerly died of small-pox now died of scarlatina and other diseases proper to childhood. This observation," he continues, "repeated at Pavia, where vaccination is obligatory, gave the same result."

Facts in general, however, do not bear out the opinion of Dr Sainte-Marie; and the proofs of M. de Chateauneuf are too strong to be withstood, especially as they are taken from an inquiry into the laws of mortality in a population of 65 millions. He proves distinctly, that at present the proportion of deaths from 0 to 10 years is 38·3 in 100, while 50 years back it was 49·9 in 100. From 0 to 50 years, there were formerly 74·4 deaths; there are now only 66 in 100; and, finally, 23 persons in 100 now attain the age 60, while at the former period only 18 did so.

1818–19–20–21, the mortality was from birth to 2 years, 26·27 per cent., and from birth to 5 years, 36.20 per cent. In the years 1821–22 it was still less, being from birth to 2 years, as 9055 : 37,679, or under 24 per cent.

In Manchester, in the last century, the mortality from 0 to 5 years was 50 per cent.; in Norwich it was 50 per cent. from 0 to 6 years. In Northampton, 50 per cent. under 10 years.* It is probable that at present it has much diminished.

A considerable decrease in the mortality has been taking place in Paris of late years. The prefect of the Seine, in his tables, rates it for five years (1817–21) from 0 to 1 year, 18.62; from 0 to 3 years, 29·33; and from 0 to 5 years, 33.28 on 100. M. Friedlander makes it much less: according to him, the number of deaths in Paris for 10 years (1806–1817), was 213,501, of which there died,

From 0 to	1,	31,803	14,9 in 100
0	2,	42,473	22,9 in 100
0	5,	45,778	23,2 in 100
0	15,	69,135	32,2 in 100

In the century preceding, the deaths were from 0 to 1 year, 21,287 in 100, and from 0 to 5 years, 46,056 in 100.†

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* *Beiträge zur Medicinischen Statistik, u. s. w. von Dr Casper*, s. 147.

† From the *Annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes* for 1826, it

It is very difficult to account for the great disparity observable in the rate of mortality in different towns in many respects bearing a great resemblance to each other. This, however, is certain, that a difference in climate is not sufficient to account for the disparity; for in this view of the question, how should the mortality be so much less in Paris, London, Berlin, and Petersbourg, than in Vienna, Milan, and Padua?* Wherever children are suckled by their own mothers their mortality is less startling. M. de Chateauneuf asserts, that out of 100 children brought up by their mothers, 18 die the first year, while of the same number put to nurse no less than 29 die. Tourtelle, in his Elements of Hygiene, says, "that out of 1000 not suckled by their mothers 500 die; but if suckled

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would appear, that of 26,000 children born at Paris, which may be stated as about the average, no more than one-half attain the age of 20 years, and only one-third that of 45.

In Berlin, where the mortality of children was always very high, a similar diminution has taken place. For the last 10 or 12 years, according to Dr Casper, the mortality has fallen from between 50 and 60 to 43 in 100.

* It may be mentioned, that Dr Trevisau, in a paper contained in the *Annali Univers. de Medicina*, affirms, that out of 100 children born in the months of December, January, and February, there perished 66 during the first month of life, and 15 in the course of the year; while no less than 83 attained the age of one year out of 100 born in the months of June, July, and August.

This looks as if climate had a great effect in increasing or diminishing the mortality of childhood.

by them, only 300." In what way this great difference is produced, whether, on the one hand, by the superior salubrity of the maternal milk, or, on the other, by a want of care and attention, or, in fine, both these causes united, is a matter of very interesting inquiry. But, at the same time, when the cause and effect are so evident, it is surely unnecessary, in the present case, to know exactly how the latter acts before proceeding to remove the former.*

The proportion of still-born children to the total births is also an interesting object of inquiry, and, on an examination of the tables of population, published in different parts of Europe, many remarkable differences are to be observed. In the year 1814 the number of still-births in Paris was very great; it amounted to 1275 in 24,240, or was to the total births as 1 : 19. M. le Comte de Chabrol, in his Statistical Tables, rates the average number of still-births in Paris for the years 1817–18–19–20–21, as high as 61 in 1000 at home (*à domicile*), and only 33 in 1000 in those not born at home (*hors du domicile*). He explains this singularity by the register of births not being made exactly in the same manner in the two cases. In the latter case the child is registered immediately after delivery; in the former, some time is allowed to elapse before

* Schubert says, that the great mortality of children in Norrland, in Northern Sweden, arises from the circumstance of their being fed with cow's instead of their maternal milk.—*Reise nach Schweden, u. s. w. Leipz.* 1824. II.

the declaration is made. This has the effect of giving too wide a meaning to the term still-born, for many of the children so denominated have most probably survived a short time after birth. In Paris, for the year 1823, the total number of births was 27,070, and of these 1508 were still-births, being a proportion of 1 : 1.795. From the work of M. Graffenauer, it would appear that the proportion of still-born children in Strasbourg is very great. In a period of 20 years the number of still-births was 3534, giving a proportion to the total births of 1 : 11, which is certainly much higher than in any other town in Europe. The Philosophical Transactions of London state, that, in that city, of 10,000 males, 531 are still-born; of 10,000 females, 382; and of 10,000 of both sexes, 457, or 1 in 21.8. In the city of Glasgow, the number of still-births for a series of years is as follows:—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Prop. to Ann. Deaths.
1821	135	112	247	1 : 14,92
1822	157	125	282	1 : 13,08
1823	183	158	341	1 : 13,57
1824	180	136	316	1 : 14,77
1825	179	148	327	1 ; 14,97
1826	183	135	318	1 : 14,27
1827	180	169	349	1 : 14,71
For 7 years,	1197	983	2180	1 : 14,34

The total births registered and not registered for the year 1821 being 5031, the proportion of still-

born to living children for that year is $\frac{5031}{247} = 20.36$.

The number of unregistered births for the other years not being known, the respective proportions of still-births to total births cannot be given; it may be remarked, however, that the proportions to the total deaths present a remarkable degree of regularity, the difference between the maximum and minimum being no more than 1.89.*

The proportions of still-born to the total number of births in some other cities and countries are nearly as follows:—

(Rambach),	Hambourg,	1 : 15
(Gräffenauer),	Francfort,	1 : 16
Ditto,	Leipsic,	1 : 16
Ditto,	Dresden,	1 : 18
(Casper),	Berlin, average from 1785 to 1821,	1 : 19½
(Gräffenauer),	Berlin,	1 : 27
	Mark of Brandenbourg,	1 : 20
	Brandenbourg (New Mark),	1 : 22
(Saltz. Med. Zeit.),	Vienna,	1 : 24
(N. Monthly Mag.),	Vienna,	1 : 32½
(Gräffenauer),	Vienna,	1 : 33
(Casper),	Brunswick,	1 : 33
(Wargentin),	Stockholm,	1 : 36
(Gräffenauer),	Stockholm,	1 : 50
	Sweden,	1 : 40

While in most towns still-births have diminished in number, instances can also be adduced to prove

* This table has been compiled from data afforded by M. Cleland's excellent work, entitled, *Enumeration of the Inhabitants of Scotland*, &c. just published.

their increase. Thus, according to Dr Casper, the proportion they bore to the total births in Berlin from 1758 to 1763 was 1 : 23.5,—from 1764 to 1769, 1 : 20.2,—and for the last 40 years, as 1 : 18 and 1 : 19.

In all still-births it is found that males preponderate. Thus, by the prefect of the Seine's tables, out of 1508, 846 were males, 662 females. In Berlin, according to Casper, from 1785 to 1794, there were 1518 males and 1210 females,—from 1819 to 1822, 771 males and 533 females still-born; in Glasgow, for seven years the proportion of males to females was 1 : 0.822.

It is a universal and almost generally-allowed opinion, that still-births are more common among illegitimate than legitimate children.* It is not difficult to conceive that this should be the case; but, at the same time, Paris affords an instance that would appear to militate against the generality of the rule; for, in the *Maison d'Accouchement* of that city, where the births are almost all illegitimate, the still-born are to the total number of births as 1 : 20; while for the whole city, according to the

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* Marx, in his Topography of Göttingen, rates the still-born among legitimate children : : 3 : 100, and among illegitimate : : 15 : 100 in that town.

In Berlin, from 1819 to 1822, of legitimate children there were born 22,643 living, 937 dead; of illegitimate children, 4002 living, and 317 dead; the still-born forming, in the one case, $\frac{1}{23}$, and in the other, $\frac{1}{12}$.

tables of the prefect, they are 1 : 18. Hambourg and Stockholm also present curious contradictions; for while in the former the proportions of illegitimate to legitimate children is 1 : 9, and in the latter 1 : 3.3, the proportion of still-born to living children is in an inverse ratio, being in Hambourg 1 : 15, and in Stockholm 1 : 50.

This difference of mortality, however, which appears so considerable in the case of children in general, shrinks into insignificance when compared with that of children received into public hospices. Could it be reduced to the same standard, the advantage obtained would be immense; but the weakness of constitution too often inherited by the latter, from the vices of their parents, and other circumstances connected with their physical education, have hitherto rendered, and will, it is to be feared, always render this impossible. A Frenchman, in speaking of a foundling hospital, remarked, that the following inscription should be put over the gate, *Ici on tue les Enfans aux frais de l'Etat;* and certainly, when the mortality is considered, the sarcasm is far from being unjust. A comparison of the number of deaths among children brought up by their parents and children reared in an hospital, or by public charity in any way, shows a disparity as striking as it is lamentable, and which the administrations of the various hospitals of Europe have laboured to remove, but with comparatively little success. Thus, even in the present day, the hospital of Paris, with an annual expense of 1,200,000

francs (£48,000), and with the most zealous care and attention, sees only 122 children out of 1000 attain the age of 12 years.

If the proportions in the mortality of foundlings in different countries given by authors be correct, the discrepances are so very considerable as to create astonishment how, from the general similarity of attending circumstances, these differences can exist. Thus, from 0 to 1 year, there died, during the latter part of last century, in

Petersburg, .	40 in 100
Barcelona, .	60 in 100
Paris, .	80 in 100
Dublin, .	91 in 100,* and

from 0 to 4 years there died at Rome, Madrid, Paris, and Dublin, 50, 52, 70, and 98, in 100.† In

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* This proportion of deaths in Dublin is taken from the reports made to the Irish parliament in 1791. It would appear from these reports, that, of 19,440 children received into the Foundling Hospital of that city during the space of 20 years, 17,440 could not be accounted for. Of 7650 admitted from 1781 to 1784, there died, within 15 days after admission, no less than 2944. In the year 1790 there were admitted 2180, and of these only 187 reached the age of one year. From 1798 to 1805 were received 12,786, and in five years after there remained of these only 135 alive.

† Dr Georgi, in his description of St Petersburg, says, that, from the registers of the Children's Hospital at Moscow, there were received for the 20 years, from 1766 to 1786, 37,607

many places this excessive mortality, from the improvements in the construction of hospitals, and of the physical education of the children, has considerably diminished, yet in some towns it is still immense. In Palermo, in 1824, it was 72 in 100 during the first year; in Madrid, in 1817, it was 67 in 100 both in town and country; in Barcelona, in 1820, it was 78; in Brussels, from 1812 to 1817, it was 79. Dr Otto says, it is 80 in the Baliatico in Rome; and in Vienna, in 1811, it was as high as 92. The mortality of Brussels, however, has since diminished to 56 in 100 from a change in the hospital. Throughout France it is at present 60 in 100 during the first year; but it is singular to remark the disparity in the proportion in the different provinces of the kingdom. M. de Chateauneuf, in his pamphlet already so frequently quoted, remarks, that the two extreme terms occur; the lower, in Alsace, being 15.25 in 100, and the higher no less than 75.50 and 80.04 in 100 in Le Maine and Le Bourbonnais; and that,

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children. Of these 1020 left the house, 6080 still remained, and 30,507 had died. (P. 219.) At the time when children used to be received into the Hôtel Dieu of Paris the mortality was tremendous; in that respect resembling the Dublin Hospital. Camper says, that, of 5980 children received in one year, 580 only attained the age of five years. As the regulations improved this mortality diminished; thus,

From 1786 to 1789, it was	90 per cent.
From an. xi. to xiii.	74 per cent.

in the increasing series of the proportions, the mortality follows no fixed order or direction, passing from the north to the south of France; then returning to the centre; striking in the same proportion the most distant provinces, such as Le Dauphiné and La Franche Comté, La Guienne and La Champagne, La Provence and Le Limousin; the climate, he tells us, has no influence upon its progress, since there die as many in La Flandre, situated in the north, as in La Touraine in the south; the fertility and richness of the soil affect it not, as many dying in La Flandre, where agriculture flourishes, as in Le Limousin and l'Auvergne, where it is very far from doing so.

The total number of foundlings throughout the kingdom for the year 1821 was 25,916, of which there died 14,910, being a proportion of 57.63 in 100. But the disparities above-mentioned are so great as to throw considerable doubt upon their correctness; for what difference of circumstances can be so great as to produce a difference of mortality so remarkable as that between Alsace (15.25 in 100) and Le Bourbonnais (80.04 in 100?)

In consequence of the inquiries set on foot by the administration of the Foundling Hospital of the capital, any difference observable in the mortality is more easily accounted for. The number of children was 12,333, who were confided to the care of 9727 nurses, of whom 6000 were proprietors of the house which they occupied, and 6274 possessed a cow or goat. It is in La Bourgogne, and Le

Nivernais especially, where the nurses are in these comfortable circumstances, and in Picardy, where they are not so, that the minimum and maximum of mortality is observed.

Before proceeding to take notice of the other establishments for the reception of children, it may be proper to mention in this place an institution of considerable importance to the capital, known by the name of the *Direction des Nourrices.* This was erected by a declaration of the king, dated at Compiègne on the 24th of July, 1769, and is now under the jurisdiction of the general hospital-administration. It is situated in the Rue Ste Apolline, and its principal object is to procure healthy and respectable nurses at a moderate price for such citizens of Paris as may be unable to suckle their own children, and in this way to prevent the exposing of infants from becoming more common. The nurses are brought up to Paris by persons receiving salaries from the administration; and they are allowed to remain some time in the house, that they may have an opportunity of being hired. When they have received a child, they are taken back to the country in carriages; and there are persons, named *receveurs*, attached to the establishment, who are charged with the duty of collecting the sums due to them by the parents whose children they have the care of. These *receveurs* have an annual salary of about 1200 francs, (£48,) one-half of which is certain, and the remainder arises from a commission of one-half per cent. upon the sums collected. They

are required to furnish security to the amount of 1200 francs. In those cases where the parents neglect to make regular payments, the child is brought to the Foundling Hospital, where it remains for the space of 10 days, after which, if not reclaimed, it is sent to the country like other abandoned children. If reclaimed, the parents must pay half a franc a-day for the time it had remained in the hospital.

The price given by parents to nurses may vary according to the demand for the latter; but the administration warrant the payment of only 10 francs a-month. The principal obligations upon the parents are to pay to the institution, when they come to choose a nurse, the sum of five francs; to pay to the nurse half a franc a league for travelling expenses; to furnish proper clothes for the child; to pay regularly every month the price agreed upon with the nurse; half a franc to the medical person who attends to the health of the child; five centimes to the *direction* and five centimes to the *preposé*, whose business it is to see that the child is properly taken care of. The obligations upon the nurses are the same as upon those employed by the Foundling Hospital. The *direction* obliges itself to warrant the health of the nurse, to superintend the infant, and to give accounts of it every month to the parents.

The *direction des nourrices* is divided into *service intérieur*, or of Paris, and *service extérieur*, or of the country. For the former there are 110 beds, —26 for children, 84 for nurses.

There existed in the establishment on the 1st January, 1822,	35	3956	Nurses.
Received during the year,	3921		
Of these returned home with children,	3456	3952	
Without children,	399		
Dismissed,	97		
Remaining on 31st December, 1822,	4		

The number of children put out to nurse in 1822 was 3404, and at the rate of 12 francs a-month each.

It has been already mentioned that foundlings and children abandoned by their parents are admitted into particular hospitals, which are maintained by funds set apart for that purpose exclusively. The establishments for the reception of orphans, again, are classed with and regulated as the other hospitals and hospices described in a former part of this work; and they are all kept up by means of the same common funds.

Prior to the order of the minister of the interior in 1808, incorporating them into one, there were two establishments for orphans in Paris,—the one for boys and the other for girls. These are now united in the building formerly used as a foundling hospital in the Faubourg St Antoine. The orphan-hospital is destined for the reception of children who have lost one or both parents; but in the former case the surviving parent must be in a state of indigence. When admitted, if not already vaccinated, they are placed in a separate part of the

house; after vaccination, they are removed to the common wards. Previous to the year 1812 the parents or friends of the inmates were allowed to visit them occasionally. Since that time, however, all communication between a child and its friends ceases the moment it enters the house.*

Children are received into the Orphan-Hospital from the age of two to twelve years. On reaching the latter age they are removed out of the house, and bound apprentice to some tradesman or manufacturer. It is hardly correct to say, that an orphan at any age is received permanently as an inmate; for this must be regarded merely as a depôt, from which the earliest opportunity is taken to remove him to the country. Any person in Paris wishing to take a child into his employment must make application to the administration, and satisfy it of the respectability of his character. After that he may select a child, and take him on trial for a month. At the end of this probationary term he returns with him to the hospital; and, if satisfied with him, enters into a contract, which must be at-

* This regulation has been attended with benefit. Previous to it much abuse had existed; for many persons, without being in any great state of indigence, were in the habit of placing their children in the Orphan-Hospital, merely for the sake of avoiding the expense of their maintenance. As soon as the regulation was passed, its good effects became apparent in many children being withdrawn from the house, and the number of admissions being considerably diminished.

tested by notaries, and in which the respective duties of master and apprentice are enumerated. The administration of the hospital, being the legal tutors or guardians of the children, reserve to themselves the right of annulling any engagement entered into between master and apprentice, when they conceive the latter to be in any danger of suffering from improper treatment, whether moral or physical.

All the details connected with the placing of the children out of the house, with the payment of their pensions when in the country, and with their clothing, belong to the *Bureau de Placement*, which was formerly distinct from the hospital, but now forms an integral part of it. This bureau is likewise charged with the superintendence of all the children above twelve years of age belonging to the Foundling Hospital.

Such of the children as are in the country are, as much as possible, attached to persons engaged in agricultural pursuits. From the age of two to seven years they receive annually from the administration a supply of clothing, and five francs a-month for their board. From the age of eight to twelve there is no clothing furnished, unless they have just then left the hospital; and the allowance for their board is diminished to four francs a-month. When they have completed their twelfth year, their masters receive 50 francs; after which they must feed, clothe, and board them at their own expense. When they have attained majority, the persons with whom they are placed must present them with

a *trousseau*, as it is named, and with at least 30 francs in money. If they remain after this period, they must be paid at the current rate of wages of the country. The clothes furnished to them are almost in every respect the same with those already described as furnished to the children of the Foundling Hospital. For the orphans as well as foundlings placed out of the house there are appointed certain inspectors, whose duty it is to see that they are in every respect properly attended to. These inspectors are three in number, and for six months in the year they traverse the country on horseback, inquiring into the state of the children. They receive each 5000 francs a-year, and are maintained at the joint expense of the orphan and foundling hospitals.

While in the house the children are taught the ordinary rudiments of education, and are employed in some trifling description of work; the boys, for instance, in forming cards for weaving, and in picking cotton for manufacturers. One-third of the slight revenue thus obtained (3000 francs) is divided among them. The girls have plenty of employment in the making and repairing of clothes.

The *personnel* of the establishment consists of—

1 *Agent de surveillance* (house-steward).
12 Sisters of Charity, to watch over and instruct the girls.
5 teachers, to superintend and educate the boys.
1 chaplain.

1 surgeon.
3 tailors.
20 female attendants.
Several male attendants and workmen,—forming in all about 50 persons.

The boys receive 20 ounces, the girls 18 ounces of bread daily. For dinner, they get broth and three ounces of dressed meat (6 of raw); for supper, vegetables, fruit, or eggs, and on Sundays a small allowance of wine.*

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* To contrast with the diet of the Paris hospital, the following are tables of the diet of the different establishments for children in Edinburgh:—

HERIOT'S HOSPITAL.

Breakfast, at eight o'clock.—Porridge, and half a mutchkin of sweet milk in winter,—in summer, sweet or butter milk, according to circumstances.

Lunch, at eleven o'clock.—5 ounces of bread.

Dinner, at two o'clock.

Sundays, Thursdays,	Broth; about 7 ounces of beef (undressed); 5 ounces of bread.
Tuesdays, Fridays,	Broth; about 7 ounces of beef (undressed); 2½ ounces of bread; and, in lieu of the remainder, mashed potatoes.
Mondays, Wednesdays,	Potato-soup; 5 ounces of bread.

Saturday.—Pea-soup; 5 ounces of bread.

Afternoon-lunch, at five o'clock; 5 ounces of bread.

Supper.—Week-days, porridge and milk.—Sundays, bread and milk.

The diet of the Merchant Maiden, Trades' Maiden, George

When any of the children are taken ill, they are removed from the public rooms to the infirmary. In it there are two rooms set apart for the reception of such as are afflicted with scrofula, where they are put upon a particular regimen,—a measure which is said to have been attended with very considerable

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Watson's, and Orphan hospitals, though essentially much the same, differs in some respects, both in regard to quantity and quality. It is as follows:—

Meals & hours.	Merchant Maiden.	Trades' Maiden.	George Watson's.	Orphan.
Breakfast at nine o'clock.	5 ounces of bread, with milk.	Porridge and milk.	Porridge and sweet milk.	Porridge and butter-milk.
Dinner, at 11 o'clock.	Sunday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Friday,—broth; from 4 to 5 oz. of meat (24 lbs. divided into 80 portions). Thursday, rice and milk. Saturday, potato-soup. Monday, pea-soup. Each day 5 oz. of bread.	Sunday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday,—broth; 5 or 6 oz. of meat.—Bread (a loaf of 20 oz. forms 6 portions). Monday, in summer, 7 oz. of bread, and an English pint of sweet milk; in winter, potato-soup made of mutton. Wednesday and Friday, 7 oz. of bread, and an English pint of milk.—On Wednesday, an egg in addition.	Every day, except Saturday, ¼ of a pound of beef (Dutch weight). Broth, beer, and 5 oz. of bread.	Three times a-week, ¼ of a lb. of meat (undressed). Every day, broth, and 5 oz. of bread. Potato-soup once a-week.
Lunch, at 4 o'clock.	A loaf, weighing 20 oz., divided into 6 portions.	A loaf, weighing 20 oz., divided into 6 portions.	5 oz. of bread, with milk.	A roll, weighing 2 ounces.
Supper, at 8 o'clock.	Bread and milk.	The 4th part of a 20 oz. loaf.—A tin of milk.	Porridge and milk in winter.—5 ounces of bread, with milk, in summer.	Porridge and skim-milk.

benefit. There is also a school for the instruction of the deaf and dumb.

The Orphan-Hospital of Paris contains 760 beds, arranged as follows:—

1st Division,	Boys, 200,	Girls, 150.	Tot. 350
2d Division,	Boys, 200,	Girls, 150.	Tot. 350
Infirmaries,	Boys, 30,	Girls, 30.	Tot. 60
		Tot. gen.	760

There were in the hospital, on the 1st of January, 1822, 342 children, and there entered during the year 807; of these 788 quitted the house and 25 died, giving a mortality of 1 in 46. The average daily expense of each child was 1 franc 29 cent. (13 pence.) On the 1st of January there were 830 children apprenticed in Paris, and during the course of the year 206 more were apprenticed in the same place. In the country there were, on the 1st of January, 572 children, and 163 in addition were sent there in the course of the year. The children apprenticed in Paris, there being no pensions paid for them, cost the administration 23 fr. 90 c., or very nearly one pound sterling; while those in the country, for whom monthly pensions were paid, cost 86 fr. 09 cent. (£3, 9s.) each.

The clothing and bedding of each child in the hospital cost about 40 centimes, or, as nearly as possible, fourpence English, per day. As far as it can be done, the linens are taken from what is

termed the *Etablissement de Filature,* a charitable institution under the charge of the General Hospital Council, which gives work to nearly 3000 indigent and respectable females annually. The common cloth for the boys, termed *Drap de Mouy,* costs about five shillings a yard, and the stuff for the girls' dresses from twentypence to half-a-crown. The calico costs from seventeenpence to twentypence a yard, and all woollen materials from three to four shillings the pound weight,—the variation in price depending principally on the expense of fabrication.

Each child has a separate bed, and the bedding consists of a straw palliasse, a woollen mattress, a feather-bolster, and two blankets. The wards always remain to a certain extent lighted throughout the night to prevent mischief; and on the boys' side one of the teachers, on the girls' one of the Sisters of Charity, are lodged in such a way as to be instantly at hand in case of accident.

A general inspection of the children in the country was made in 1822, from which it appeared, that of 572 only 8 were ill fed, 300 were learning a profession, 170 were learning to read and write, and 42 were sick. These 572 children were placed with 530 persons, of whom 300 possessed a cow or goat, 400 were proprietors of the houses they inhabited, and only 17 appeared not to be attached to the children; and here, as in the inspection made for the Foundling Hospital, it was found that those children whose propensities were vicious were in

almost every case found with persons little attached to them, and who treated them harshly,—a fact which shows the importance of kind treatment in producing good characters.

After so full a detail of every thing connected with the Orphan and Foundling Hospitals of Paris, it will be unnecessary to say much regarding those of the provincial towns of France. In fact, though in some trifling respects they may differ, they are essentially the same, so that a few remarks on one or two of them will be sufficient for the present purpose. In the year 1748, an asylum was formed at Strasbourg for the reception of children abandoned by their parents, in which they were educated and maintained gratuitously till of an age to earn their own livelihood. Illegitimate children were also admitted upon the payment of 300 francs (£12.) This establishment was entitled to a small fee from every person admitted to the freedom of the city; but its funds were principally derived from a lottery authorised for the purpose. The children are not received as inmates of the hospital until they have attained the age of five years, previous to which they must be boarded out, either in town or country, at the rate of 12 francs for the first year, 9 for the second, and 6 for each following year till they enter the hospital. They are sent out to service at the age of 15. To the Orphan Hospital, which is of considerable antiquity, all children of citizens are entitled to admission; but till the age of three years they must be kept

out at board. They are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, and upon quitting the establishment receive a supply of clothes.

In Marseille, previous to the year 1812, pregnant women and foundlings were received into the general hospital of the Hôtel Dieu; but since that time a separate establishment, called the Maternité, has been provided for them. Orphans are received into La Charité, which is an hospice for aged persons also: the girls are employed in weaving, and may earn in this way from a franc and a half to three francs a-month; the boys are engaged in the manufacture of shoes; and both are occasionally occupied in the fabrication of a particular description of woollen cap, producing a revenue of 7000 francs (£280) a-year, of which one-third is distributed among them. One considerable source of revenue to this hospital is derived from the inmates assisting in funeral ceremonies,—the remains of an old custom, which was interrupted at the period of the Revolution, but again resorted to in 1803. This gave rise to the formation of a school of music. In the year 1604, a company of 13 orphans, in the Hôtel Dieu, was appointed to assist in a certain dress at funerals; from them has sprung this school, which was afterwards transferred to La Charité, and which has produced several eminent composers, as, for example, the author of the *Melomanie*. The sums paid for attendance at funerals are, for seven children, three francs,—for thirteen, seven francs; when the attend-

ance is much greater, 33, 150, and even 300 francs are paid, and the annual revenue thus obtained averages 10,000 francs.*

In the different states of Europe much attention has been paid of late years to the improvement of the condition of foundlings and orphans; it may not be uninteresting, therefore, as a contrast to the French system, to notice shortly one or two of these institutions. In Russia and Spain, differing so much in the characters of the country, and in the manners and dispositions of the inhabitants, a considerable resemblance is found in their mode of treating foundlings. To make up as much as possible for the misfortunes of their birth, these helpless beings are at once put in possession of rights which raise them above the greater part of the community. In Russia foundlings are declared free, no person whatever being entitled to interfere with their personal liberty; while in Spain they are even regarded as nobles; the law, in the uncertainty that must always exist as to the quality

* Pour *la petite famille* ou soit 33 enfans, et les Enfans de Chœur, 33 francs. Pour *la demi famille*, c'est à dire, la moitie des garçons, filles, et vieillards, 150 francs. Enfin pour *la famille entière* 300 francs.

This is certainly a better employment for children than that practised in Paris before the General Council was appointed, viz. the hiring out of the children to the managers of the opera to exhibit on the stage, when, for the effect of the piece, a body of children was required. At present this abuse is most strictly prohibited.

of their parents, giving them the benefit of the most favourable supposition respecting their birth.

In the Orphan Hospital of Halle, founded by Dr Franck, the children are brought up to a knowledge of the arts and sciences, as often as the natural bent of their mind renders that proper; otherwise they are restored to their families, after having attained the age of 14 years. Belonging to the establishment there is a library of 20,000 volumes and 13,000 engravings. In Vienna the Foundling Hospital is situated in the Alstervorstadt, in a building erected during the reign of Joseph II., and within two or three hundred yards of the General Hospital. It is intended for the reception of children born out of wedlock, who are carefully educated till they have attained their 13th year. The children also of such poor persons as, from illness, are obliged to enter the sick-hospital, are admitted, and taken charge of till their recovery. Attached to the house is a vaccine institution, which not only serves for the vaccination of the inmates, but distributes the matter throughout all the Austrian states. The funds of the Foundling Hospital consist of funded stock, a tax upon children admitted, and upon nurses furnished to private individuals, a yearly allowance from government to the vaccine institution, and a percentage on the excise duties of the city. A society of noble ladies, named the *Gesellschaft von Adelichen Damen*, also give sums of money for its maintenance. In one year alone they contributed as much as 10,000 florins.

Children are admitted into this hospital from the great hospital, the city, the suburbs of Vienna, the district of Lower Austria, and even from the other provinces of the empire. If they come from the lying-in hospital, it is either upon payment of a certain sum, according to circumstances, or gratis. By a circular of 13th June, 1813, the child whose mother is of the first class, pays a tax of 60 florins; when the mother is of the second class, 30 florins; and in case the child is received gratis, the mother, upon recovery, must do the duty of a nurse, and suckle another child as well as her own.* A child born in the town, or suburbs, or in the provinces of Lower Austria, pays 60 florins upon entry, while 120 florins is required for every child from the

* Pregnant women are received into particular wards of the great hospital of Vienna at all hours; if it is their wish to be unknown, they come veiled, and under a false name; but at the same time they must present a sealed card containing their real name; this, upon their recovery, is returned to them unopened, the seal being broken only in the event of their death. These women are divided into different classes; 12 chambers are destined for the first class, who pay one florin a-day, and four florins on delivery; their children are received into the foundling hospital on the payment of 60 florins. There are six wards for a second class, who pay only 30 kreutzers a-day, and three florins on delivery, and whose children are received into the foundling hospitals for 30 florins; and there is accommodation also for a third class of women, who are admitted gratuitously, upon bringing a certificate of poverty; their children being admitted upon the same terms into the foundling hospital.

No student is permitted entrance into those wards or apartments occupied by females who choose to remain unknown.

other provinces of the empire. Children are taken in free of expense, under any of the following circumstances:—1st, If born in the lying-in hospital, when the mothers must serve as nurses in the foundling hospital for the space of four months. 2d, Such as are found exposed in the street, or whose mothers have been unexpectedly taken in labour, and bring a certificate of poverty from the proper authorities. 3d, Those whose mothers, though not delivered in the lying-in hospital, agree to discharge the duty of nurses for the space of three months. The children of criminals are also admitted, whether born in or out of wedlock; and in the former case they are retained till the parents are set at liberty; but should the parents die in confinement, they must be removed into some other establishment, as this is intended solely for children born out of wedlock. The regulations with respect to registering the inmates are nearly similar to those adopted in the French hospitals; and this hospital, like them, is merely a depôt, where the child is retained till it shall be provided with a nurse from the country. The number of nurses belonging to the house itself is 72, who are well lodged and fed, and receive a yearly sum of 40 florins, with an additional remuneration of 10 florins if the children committed to their charge are well treated. When a private individual applies to the hospital for a nurse, the directors may grant permission to one of them to accept of the situation; and, upon her doing so, the sum of 60 florins must be paid to the funds of the institution.

After a child has been two months at breast in the house, it is sent to the country, and the allowances for its maintenance are as follows:—

1st, To the age of one year,—156 florins the whole year, or 13 florins a-month.

2d, At the completion of the first year, if the child be in good health, the person who has had charge of it for eight complete months, receives a remuneration of 10 florins.

3d, From the end of the first to the end of the second year, 120 florins, or 10 florins a-month.

4th, From the end of the second to the completion of the 6th year, 84 florins annually.

5th, At the end of the fifth year, if the child has been four years with the person, and is in good condition, a remuneration of 10 florins.

6th, From the completion of the 6th to that of the 12th year, 60 florins annually; after this no more money is paid.

If the nurses who present themselves to receive children are obliged to return without them, their names and addresses are noted down, and they are paid for travelling expenses 30 kreutzers a-mile (5 English miles). Three medical overseers or superintendents are appointed to look after the children placed out, and to see that they are properly

attended to. When a child is reclaimed by its parents, it is not given up until the establishment is reimbursed for the expense incurred on account of it; and if there are foster-parents, they, too, must be recompensed for the want of any advantages that may have been naturally expected to accrue to them from the services of the child from the period at which it has been reclaimed, up to the age of 22 years. In the orphan hospital of Vienna there are 163 places allotted for children belonging to the foundling hospital, who are admitted at the age of seven years, and must be of a robust constitution. The physicians and surgeons of the districts in which children are placed are required to attend to their health; and any account of medicines, properly certified, is paid by the hospital-administration. The mortality of the Vienna hospital has always been appalling; in favourable seasons at most 30, in ordinary times 20, and in bad years only 10 per 100 were reckoned to attain the age of one year.* In the year 1810, out of 2789 children, no less than 2583 died, or between 92 and 93 in 100. From the 1st December, 1811, to the end of November, 1812, out of 2847 children, 2519 died, or 88 in 100. Well then may it be said with Schlöser, *die findelhäuser sind moralische und physische mördergruben.*†

* *Vid.* Osiander.

† *Vid.* Schlöser's Briefwechsel, iv. Thl. xix. Hft s. 20. Foundling hospitals are moral and physical places of murder.

The allowances made to persons taking charge of children are high; but this has had a good effect in bringing forward country people. From the 1st December, 1812, to the 30th November, 1813, there were received into the house 2925 children, of whom 1427 were sent to the country, and the total mortality was 2037, or 69 per cent.. In 1814–15, however, the depreciation in the value of paper-money put every thing into confusion; a child, in a pecuniary point of view, became no object to a nurse, and, consequently, the number of children boarded out of the house was much diminished; but this evil has since been gradually disappearing.

In the year 1718, the Emperor Charles VI. founded a large hospital in Vienna for the reception of aged persons and foreigners, particularly such as were natives of Spain. It was long known by the name of the Spanish Military Hospital of the Holy Trinity. Joseph II., when he completed his great hospital-establishment, converted this into an orphan hospital, and took it under his own immediate protection; bestowing upon it, at the same time, funds for supporting 400 children. That number is admitted, free of all expense; but other children also are received, upon paying annually the sum of 66 florins for their maintenance. There is no difference in the mode of educating and treating the two classes, excepting that the latter do not wear the uniform dress of the former. The boys are subjected to strict military discipline, and many

of them enter into the army upon leaving the establishment.

In Milan, the foundling hospital, *nel Locale di Santa Catharina alla Ruota*, maintains about 4000 children. Each of these, upon marriage, receives a *beneficio* of 76 *lire* and a woollen coverlet.

The orphan hospital for boys (*Orfanotrofio dei Maschi*) was founded in 1528. It contains about 200 inmates, who are taken in from seven to thirteen years of age, and remain till eighteen. They are taught to read, write, count, and draw, along with the most useful mechanical arts.' 'One-fourth part of the gains of each, while in the house, is reserved for him at his departure. The *Orfanotrofio delle Femine*, or orphan hospital for females, was founded in 1578 by St Charles Borromeo. It is divided into two compartments; the one for girls from seven to ten years of age, who, upon attaining their twenty-first year, may enter into the other for life. If a girl is married while in the house, she receives a dowry of 383 *lire*, or, if married after leaving it, and having been there for six years, her dowry is 307 *lire*. All the others are provided with a dowry of 115, 13 *lire* from a legacy of Turconi. Their education consists of reading, writing, arithmetic, music, and domestic work.

In the two last-mentioned institutions, private individuals may be entered, on payment of a reasonable charge.

In Naples, the *Albergo dei Poveri*, or *Reale*, a magnificent building, situated near the gate leading

to Rome, is open for the reception of orphans, and likewise of persons far advanced in years, or such as are deaf and dumb; and the inscription over the door-way,—"*Regium totius regni Pauperum Hospitium,*" shows that its benefits are not confined to the town alone. The children are instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic, according to the system of Bell and Lancaster, as well as in music, singing, and drawing, and in various branches of handiwork. There are large rooms for those learning the professions of shoemakers, tailors, and joiners; and many are employed in a manufactory of coral, for which they receive daily a small sum, (4 *grani*). This great establishment is capable of maintaining 3000 persons, and there is this singularity about it, that it has attached to it a theatre, in which pieces are acted during the winter months.

The foundling hospital, the *Spedale della Nunziata*, is, according to Dr Otto, the worst-managed in Naples. The infants are placed in very confined and miserable wards, the air of which is so corrupted that its impurities can be perceived even in the outer-court. The nurses receive 18 *carlini* a-month, and each of them suckles two children, which are placed in a cradle with their feet towards each other. Upon attaining the age of seven years, the boys are sent to the *Albergo Reale*, and the girls to the neighbouring cloister of the *Nunziata*, where they may remain for life, except in the event of their marriage, when they receive a small dowry.

The hospital of *Santa Maria degli Innocenti*, at

Florence, maintains about 4000 children, and is in every respect an admirable institution. Eighteen nurses are always in the house, ready to suckle children newly admitted, which are despatched to the country as early as possible. The children's beds are of iron, and surrounded with nets to prevent them from falling out. The wards are lofty and well-aired, and there is an apartment reserved for the children to exercise themselves in, containing a number of wheeled chairs, which the younger ones push along, and in that manner learn to walk. In this hospital there is also a school of midwifery.

The hospital named the *Conservatorio*, at Rome, receives from the Foundling Hospital (*Baliatico*) the girls, when five or six years of age, and maintains them till their marriage, or for their whole life. From this circumstance, the inmates, who are between 400 and 500 in number, are partly young and partly old women. They are employed in various descriptions of work, which they execute very beautifully, and during their leisure hours they are entitled to work on their own account. Their beds are of iron, and only those in the sick-wards are curtained. The dinner-hour is eleven o'clock, and that meal, as well as the supper, consists of soup, meat, bread, and wine.*

The Orphan Hospital of Moscow is conducted

* *Vid.* Otto's Reise durch die Schweitz, u. s. v. erster theil, p. 144.

upon a very liberal scale, and the education afforded to the inmates is not confined to the ordinary elements; but extends to the higher branches of knowledge. Such as are possessed of merely ordinary capacities are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and some mechanical trade, while those whose talents are of a superior order are instructed in mathematics, geography, book-keeping, and the principles of trade, and are sent to the University of Moscow, or the Academy of Arts of St Petersburg. According to the description given in 1801 by Rickter, the rest of the children are placed in the work-rooms of the hospice, which are capable of containing 5000 workers, who are almost all foundlings. Order and vigilance reign through this vast establishment, which is the image of a petty town, and comprehends, along with the wards of the children, workshops, houses for the teachers, inspectors, and household attendants, a church, warehouses, breweries, bakehouses, infirmary, kitchens, &c., all in a space of ground about a league in circuit. In fact, the establishment, it is to be feared, is productive of harm rather than good; for persons send their children to it without compunction, quite satisfied that they will be well taken care of. On the one hand, since the date of its institution, now upwards of half a century ago, no case of infanticide has occurred in Moscow; but, on the other hand, the number of children exposed is greater than in any other town of Europe, except St Petersburg, being about 28 in 100. The hospital-regulations are excellent, and

every endeavour is used to awaken the better qualities of the heart. It is thought desirable that the young men brought up in the house should, as far as possible, choose wives from among their adopted sisters; and in cases where they do so, 25 roubles are given to the bride, and as much to the bridegroom, besides being lodged in the house, where they may work on their own account. A similar pecuniary recompense is given to every one who has spent some time out of the house, and brings back a certificate from his employer of correct and honourable conduct.

The Foundling Hospital of St Petersburg is also a great establishment, and is very well managed. On the 12th of November, when Dr Granville was there, there had been admitted, since the beginning of the year, 3554 children, and 465 were at breast in the house. When a child is admitted, every particular connected with its dress or appearance is noted down. A counterpart of this, signed by the secretary, is delivered to the bearer of the child. Around its neck is put a piece of ivory, suspended by a riband, and fastened by a leaden seal, which is worn by the girls till 20 and by boys till 22 years of age, to show they are under the protection of the establishment.

The foundlings are removed from the country-nurses at the age of five and six years to the foundling school at *Gatchina*, where they are placed in classes, to learn the Russian, German, French, and Latin grammar. In process of time, when it has been as-

certained what are the natural capacities of the children of either sex, a selection is made from among them, and the less intelligent are formed into a working-class; the girls being treated in the same manner as the boys. The younger children are taught according to the Lancasterian system with great success. The handwriting of some of the boys is excellent, and they naturally become copyists.

At *Gatchina* the air is very pure and bracing to the constitution. The colour of the skin is clear and healthy; scrofula is rare, and the infirmary is almost always empty. Out of 900 children, only 15 died in 1820, and up to the month of November, 1827, no more than three.* There are foundling hospitals in Moscow, St Petersburg, Tula, Jaroslaw, Kaluga, and Kasan, besides 13 existing in 40 governments.†

There remains but one other institution to be mentioned before quitting altogether the subject of childhood, and that is the *Hôpital des Enfans Malades* of Paris. Previous to its establishment, children, when unwell, were received into the ordinary sick-hospitals; but there, to use the words of M. de Pastoret, "they were placed frequently beside men corrupted by debauchery, and labouring,

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* *Vid.* Dr Granville's Tour, v. ii. pp. 290-502. † *Vid.* Darstellung der Russischen Monarchie, u. s. v. von Wichmann.

perhaps, under diseases which are the consequence of it." The physical constitution of the children, therefore, often suffered,—their morals invariably did so. To obviate these bad effects, this admirable hospital was created for the reception of children between 2 and 15 years of age. The number of beds is, altogether, 560; and a teacher is attached to the establishment, who gives daily lessons in reading, writing, and arithmetic to the inmates.

The state of the hospital for the year 1822 was as follows:—

	Acute Diseases.			Chronic Diseases.			Convalescent.	Total.
	Medical.	Variolous.	Surgical.	Scrofula.	Tinea	Itch.		
Ex. Jan. 1, 1822,	75	13	64	79	83	80	9	407
Ent. during year	1783	227	313	118	197	479	26	3142
Died,	519	106	49	35	0	0	0	709
Mortality,	1 in $3\frac{41}{100}$	1 in $2\frac{15}{100}$	1 in $7\frac{10}{100}$*	1 in $4\frac{33}{100}$	0	0	0	1 in $4\frac{43}{100}$

There are few establishments of Paris more worthy of being visited than the Hôpital des Enfans Malades, and there are few in which more interesting information can be obtained. In Vienna and London there are institutions which in some respects resemble it; and they, too, are worthy of imitation

* It may be proper to remark, that though one in $7\frac{10}{100}$ is the average mortality of males and females, yet that separately the mortality of the former was only one in $10\frac{66}{100}$, while that of the latter was as high as one in $3\frac{45}{100}$; and, in like manner, the mortality of scrofulous males was one in $6\frac{07}{100}$, while in females it was one in $2\frac{66}{100}$.

on many accounts. The former of these was first originated in 1787, by a physician of Vienna, who continued until his death, in 1793, to furnish, gratuitously, advice and medicines to sick children. The government then proceeded to form it into a public institution, under the charge of Dr Gölis. Attendants are always at hand in the consulting-chambers, to take down the addresses, characters of the maladies, medicines prescribed, and other matters of the sort. As well as the infants received into the hospital, all children under the age of 10 years, bringing with them a certificate of poverty from their clergyman, are treated in the most approved modes. The value of this institution may be judged of from the number of patients, who average nearly 500 a-month. From 1794 to 1813 the total number was 88,164. In the course of the year 1813 there were 6468 children, and from the 1st November 1814, to the 31st October 1815, 6520. The expenses are defrayed from donations, legacies, and the interest of a small capital.

In London, the Royal Metropolitan Infirmary for sick children is a most valuable institution: it gives gratuitous assistance to children under 12 years of age. From September 1820 to January 1821, assistance was given to no fewer than 8800 children.

Dr Granville speaks in high terms of an institution at St Petersburg, resembling the Hôpital des Enfans Malades of Paris; he thinks it in some respects even superior to it.

CHAPTER X.

CONDITION OF LUNATICS IN FRANCE.—IMPROVEMENT IN THEIR TREATMENT.—LUNATIC ESTABLISHMENTS.

If the improvements introduced into the system of management, and in the internal details of the hospitals of France be great, the attention of the French public has been no less strongly directed towards the condition of the lunatic population of the kingdom.

The establishments in France for the reception of lunatics are now in many points excellent; during the lapse of the last twenty years most beneficial changes have been brought about in the state of the buildings, in the regimen, in the household-service, and, in fine, in the general treatment, whether moral or physical, of the unfortunate inmates. The improvements, however, which began to take place in hospital-establishments in general after the Revolution, did not extend so rapidly to these as to the other charitable institutions of the kingdom. Mental alienation continued till lately to be accounted a malady of a character totally incurable, and, instead of attempts being made to rouse the dormant faculties, and restore the mind to its tone,

the wretched individuals thus afflicted were deemed lost to society, and were confounded with malefactors condemned to punishment by the laws of their country, and in many cases perhaps even more harshly treated.

To give some idea of the way in which lunatics were treated, it will be sufficient to look into the reports of the General Council of the civil hospitals of Paris.* When this Council paid its first visit to the hospitals of Paris, it found, in the Hôtel Dieu, maniacs of the most furious character, confounded with the sick labouring under fever, or under the consequence of surgical operations. It found in the Petites Maisons, Bicêtre, and Salpétrière, lunatics confined in cells, where, in the present day, the meanest animal of the Garden of Plants would not be placed. Many of them were not six feet square; they received air and light only by the door, through an aperture scarcely large enough to admit their food; and the unfortunate inmates were frequently loaded with chains which they could with difficulty drag about with them. Their beds, such as they were, were fixed into the wall, so that in sleep they were bedewed with the moisture that constantly trickled down the damp stone, and frozen with cold, which no attempt was ever made to mitigate.

* *Vid.* Rapport fait au Conseil Général des Hospices Civils de Paris dans sa séance du 13 Novembre, 1822, sur le service des alienés, &c. p. 44.

In the Salpétrière, whenever the waters of the Seine rose above their ordinary level, the unhealthiness of the cells was greatly increased, and they became a refuge to immense numbers of large rats, which attacked the miserable inmates during the night, and gnawed their flesh wherever it was uncovered. At the morning visit the women were found with their feet, hands, and faces lacerated with wounds, which were often dangerous, and sometimes mortal. Deplorable as the state of lunatics was at that time in France, it was not less so in other countries of Europe. In Germany they were confined in miserable, damp, and often subterranean prisons, and were exhibited to the people as objects of curiosity. Terror was the only weapon employed to maintain order among them, and the only means of keeping them quiet were the whip and chains.*

* At the period when inquiries were first set on foot to ascertain the state of the lunatic population of France, much and shameful abuse was found to exist; but it is doubtful if at any time this abuse was so great as what has been proved to exist in the madhouses of England, by the inquiry made by order of the British parliament. The report of its committee, printed last year, unfolds an appalling mass of crime, of which the following extract may serve as a specimen. It represents the state of a lunatic asylum in the county of Middlesex:

"They were in the habit of treating these men, by chaining them down of an evening, about an hour previous to dusk, in things called cribs, which are boxes containing straw, and leaving them there till the following morning locked in, without any attendance being paid to them in the course of the

At the period when Tenon published his highly-interesting Memoirs, which was a year or two pre-

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night, let whatever occur; and on the Saturday evening they were locked down in the same state, and kept till Monday morning, without being unchained, or allowed to get up to relieve themselves in any way whatever. On the Monday morning, like the other mornings, when they got up, they were many of them in a very filthy state; and I have seen them in the depth of winter, when the snow has been upon the ground, put into a tub of cold water, and washed down with a mop. There was a man, who came from Northamptonshire, who was treated in that way; and I have seen that man brought from the room, and from the heat of the fæces that were lying upon him, his back has been completely bare for many inches up, and he was treated in the same way by being washed in the manner stated."—*Minutes of Evidence before the Select Committee*, p. 32.

In the states of Sardinia the condition of lunatics is still very indifferent. The only establishment for their reception is the *Ospedale de Pazzarelli* in Turin. It is capable of containing 300, and is in every respect miserable in the extreme. With the exception of a few cells for maniacs who pay board, and which are tolerably clean, the whole presents a wretched spectacle of dirt and mismanagement. A great number of the inmates are loaded with chains both on hands and feet; and an idea may be formed of the advantages to be expected in the way of cure from the following extract from Dr Otto's Travels:—"The third division consists of a long, low, and miserable room; here and there against the walls, and in the centre of the chamber, a quantity of straw is thrown, on which repose the inmates, who are here confined as the most unruly. Images of man sunk to the most abject pitch of misery, these unfortunate beings, naked, howling, screaming, or horribly grinning, drag themselves about. The greater number carry heavy chains; in every corner prevails the

vious to the Revolution, there were only three establishments for lunatics in France, where any thing approaching to medical treatment was attempted. These were the Hôtel Dieu of Paris, the General Hospital of Rouen, and the Hôtel Dieu of Lyons. Each of them was the sole resource of a vast tract of country; for at that time there were not, as at present, private institutions for the reception and medical treatment of persons afflicted with mental derangement. Their insufficiency then may be well conceived. Of the three establishments those of Lyons and Rouen were the best-conducted. In that of Rouen there were 85 cells, separated from the sick-wards of the hospital; in that of Lyons there were 38 cells, each for a single person, who, in case of recovery, was called upon to reimburse the administration for the expense incurred in his treatment. In the capital, where a superior state of management might have been expected, every thing presented confusion and wretchedness. Private chambers for lunatics there were none; two wards in the Hôtel Dieu were alone reserved for them. One of these, placed in connexion with the

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most sickening filth; the air is corrupted in the highest degree; and yet, as I was told, this hospital has been much improved of late years. The third part of the inmates in this establishment are loaded with chains; and, as to a cure, that is never thought of;—a prison, and that truly the most horrible that any country can give an example of is this establishment, not an hospital."—*Otto's Reise*, p. 318.

wards containing patients suffering under wounds, held ten beds, each for four persons; the other, close to the fever-wards, held six large and four small beds, for the accommodation of thirty-two females.* Every thing connected with these wards seemed to conspire in aggravating instead of alleviating the malady of the inmates; and any person admitted into them, whose case might at first have afforded hopes of a recovery, was more than likely to be reduced speedily to an incurable condition.

When accounted incurable, lunatics were transferred from the Hôtel Dieu to the Petites Maisons, Bicêtre, or Salpétrière. No medical attentions were there paid to them; they were left to finish their existence without an attempt to alleviate their misery. No classification was attended to: the furious and the melancholy, those afflicted with idiocy and epilepsy; the old and the young, were confounded together without distinction, and equally little interest was taken in them all.

When the General Hospital Council entered upon its functions, its attention was strongly directed towards the actual state of lunatics; and a rapid improvement in consequence took place in the capital. In other parts of the country, however, it went on much more slowly. This may be judged of from the circular of the minister of the interior, published in 1819, which, while it points out the faults of

* *Vid.* Mémoires sur les Hôpitaux de Paris, par Tenon, p. 213.

the existing system, recommends the meliorations that should be made. This circular sets forth, that there are departments in which the deranged portion of the community is scattered about in different hospitals, and even prisons. It recommends that all lunatics should, if possible, be received into the same establishment; they would then be better attended to, and their medical treatment followed out with more success. "In many places," it is further stated, "the cells for maniacs are small, damp, and ill-aired. The subterranean cells should be altogether abandoned, and the floors should be planked, in order that the inmates may never touch the cold earth with their feet. The doors are generally small, and the only opening in the cells. They should be enlarged, and windows should be constructed, if possible, in the opposite wall. The inmates should never be permitted to lie on the ground; they should receive food several times a-day, and never be refused liquid when thirsty. The attendants should never, under penalty of severe punishment, carry with them any instrument of offence when visiting the cells. They should be in the proportion of one to fifteen when the inmates are quiet; two to fifteen when they are furious. Where it is not already the case, a medical man should make at least one daily visit, and a medical *élève* should reside in the establishment. After the example of Paris, where two or three thousand lunatics are kept, without having recourse to chains or bad treatment, all such means of repression

should be avoided. The strait-waistcoat should be used in place of the chains and collars still to be found in some houses. The physician ought alone to grant permission to visit the inmates; and one member of the administrative committee should pay at least one weekly visit." Such are the evils which the circular of 1819 notices, and such the improvements to which it points. In the report made to the king by Lainé, when minister of state, upon the condition of lunatics in the kingdom, after mention has been made of one or two institutions worthy of praise, it is stated, that it is in the general hospitals, depôts de mendicité, and prisons, that the situations of this wretched class of the community claims most pity. Almost everywhere they occupy the most damp, unhealthy, and crazy buildings. The cells are without air, narrow, and paved like the streets; often below the level of the soil, and not unfrequently subterranean. The regimen and food are not adapted to the state of the inmates; they have no space for exercise, and are exposed to all the ill usage of brutal attendants. In fine, the institutions, such as they are, are insufficient for the demands of the country, and many lunatics are obliged to remain with their families exposed to derision and abuse.*

This account of the condition of lunatic-establish-

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* Rapport au Roi sur la situation des Hospices, des Enfans Trouvés, des Aliénés, de la Mendicité, et des Prisons, (1818.)

ments is not alone what they were previous to the Revolution, but what they were a very few years back, and what they are in many places yet. The report of Lainé dates no farther back than 1818, and of its perfect accuracy his high rank in the state is a sufficient guarantee. The same authority supposed the lunatics of France to be distributed as follows:

8 Establishments, specially destined for their reception, contain . .	1222
24 Hospitals or hospices, having accommodation for them, contain .	3196
15 *Depôts de Mendicité*, or houses of correction, contain . . .	613
Different small hospitals and prisons may contain .	1000
Total,	6031

To which he adds, as the probable number of persons not confined in any establishment, 2500; calculating thus the total number of lunatics in France to be from 8 to 9000.*

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* *Le Philanthrope* for June, 1827, gives the following statement respecting lunatics in the kingdom of the Netherlands. It must be allowed that this kingdom does not possess many lunatic-hospitals properly organized; but measures have been taken to render them so:—

The number of lunatics, poor or otherwise, amounts to

At present lunatics are admitted in France into general hospitals and hospices, into special lunatic-establishments, and into private institutions; if there are still some to be found in prison, it is only temporarily. The different public establishments are not kept up by subscriptions, but by the revenues which they may possess, or by supplementary funds voted by the general councils of departments, or the councils of municipalities, subject always to the approbation of the minister of the interior. Like all hospitals and hospices, the establishments for the reception of lunatics are under the surveillance of the minister; their internal administration, however, is under the charge of the local authorities, and more particularly of the commissions appointed in each department for directing its hospitals. At the head of this commission is the prefect, who nominates the other members.

In the lunatic-institutions of France, of whatever description they may be, every lunatic who is pre-

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5591; or, to the total population : : $9\frac{55}{100}$: 10,000. The proportion of these at the charge of the *communes*, and of the administrations of the poor, is 2979, or more than a half. This *excédent* among the poor is most apparent among women, and in those provinces in which there are large towns. The number of necessitous lunatics placed in public establishments, including 324 in the *commune* of Gheel, amounts to 1867, besides 1112 boarded with private persons.

As they form part of the minister of the interior's report to the States-General, there can be no doubt of the accuracy of these details.

sented is received without respect to any circumstance which may render his malady more or less incurable or dangerous. The causes, the duration, the character, the complication of malady, whatever these may be, furnish no motive for exclusion. For the simple admittance or dismissal of a lunatic there is no legal formality; but there exist local regulations to prevent the abuse that a want of due formality might be apt to raise against individual liberty. To be admitted into the hospitals of Paris, certain forms must be observed, prescribed by the general hospital-council, or by the prefect of police. A person claiming admittance for any one must procure, in the first place, a certificate of the state of his mental faculties from two physicians; he must then present him, along with this certificate, his register of birth, and certificate of indigence, to what is termed the Central Bureau of Admission, which alone can warrant his admission. This bureau, which is composed of a certain number of medical men, then examines more closely into the state of the person in question, and, if it be deemed proper, gives an order of admission into the Bicêtre or Salpétrière, according to the sex. Should the individual not belong to the department of the Seine, the prefect of his own department, having ascertained his mental alienation, applies to the prefect of the Seine, upon whose recommendation the administration of the hospitals of the capital receive him, upon payment of a small daily sum, which at present does not exceed one franc a-day. If the relations

are unable to pay this moderate sum, it is defrayed by the prefects of the respective departments in which the lunatics had their domicile. It became a few years back a matter of great necessity to determine accurately the mode in which the above payment should be made, as considerable abuse had existed with regard to it. The funds of the capital, destined properly for the maintenance of its own poor, had in many cases been expended in maintaining individuals who ought to have been at the charge of their own departments. There altogether reigned throughout France, at that time, an uncertainty as to the manner in which the lunatic-portion of the population should be provided for. It was in the capital alone that any degree of certainty on that head existed. In the different departments, the mode adopted for defraying the maintenance of deranged persons, whose parents or friends were not in a situation to meet the expense, varied considerably. In some it was considered a charge upon the department, and was paid accordingly by the prefects, from the funds reserved for what are termed variable or unforeseen expenses (*depenses variables ou imprévues*). In other places it was considered a charge upon the communes, where the individuals in question had acquired a right to public aid, or, as the French term it, the *Domicile de Secours*, as laid down by the law of the 15th October, 1792, (24. Vend. an. 2.) In other situations the hospitals were called upon to cover the expense either from the general revenues, or from revenues

expressly for the support of maniacs. The consequence of this uncertainty was, that the burden of maintenance was shifted from one quarter to the other, and, in the endeavours to avoid the charge, an encouragement was held out to send lunatics to the capital. The councils of departments, anxious to be rid of the charge, forwarded them to Paris, and, at the period the new organization of the hospitals was being put into full operation, the conflux of deranged persons flocking in from distant provinces was very considerable. The idea had gone abroad that the establishments of Paris were destined for the whole of France, and this idea was speedily acted upon. The first attempt to correct the abuse was made in 1813, but without success.

The general council of hospitals made another attempt in 1815, which was more successful; for the minister decreed, that, from henceforth, lunatics not belonging to the department of the Seine should no longer be received into the establishments of Paris, except upon payment of a daily sum of one franc and twenty-five centimes, payable by their families, or, in case of indigence, by their communes or departments.

Various conditions, however, were attached to the ministerial arreté, which rendered it of less avail in correcting the evil than might have been expected. When, therefore, application was made to the prefects of different departments for money to defray the expense attendant upon the maintenance of 545 persons, strangers to the department of the Seine,

the demand was evaded. A later arreté of the minister of the interior has now, in a great measure, obviated the inconveniences alluded to. In it it is distinctly provided, that the administration of the capital should only be charged with lunatics who have been domiciliated one year in the department, or who have there contracted their malady. In a circular, dated 1818, the minister, in addressing the prefects of departments, points out more distinctly how the expenses are to be borne. These magistrates are thereby warranted, from funds specially destined for the purpose, or from funds destined for unforeseen expenses, to pay for the transmission of lunatics to the capital, and also their board, when their families or communes are unable to do so. They are advised, at the same time, to make particular inquiries into the pecuniary condition of such families as have members in the hospitals of Paris, and where they find them possessed of funds, and still refusing to liquidate the demand, to attach their effects, except where the lunatic himself possesses sufficient property. By article 510 of the *Code Civil*, it is distinctly declared, that "*les revenus d'un interdit doivent être essentiellement employés à adoucir son sort et à accélérer sa guerison.*"

About the period when the above arreté was promulgated, the administration of the hospitals of Paris, upon the representations of the prefects, agreed to reduce the daily payment from one franc and twenty-five centimes to one franc.

The effect of these measures has been, that, though the number of lunatics admitted into the establishments of the capital has been greatly increased of late years, that of strangers to the department of the Seine has much diminished. The number of lunatics in the hospices of Paris in the year 1816 was 1800, of whom 1255 were presumed to belong to the department of the Seine, and 545 to other departments. In 1822, the total number belonging to the department of the Seine was 2171, and to the other departments only 322.*

But the proportion of lunatics in Paris compared to the rest of France appears to be so great, that it may be doubted how far the regulations adopted have been attended with success, and whether numbers do not still obtain admission under fictitious characters.

Upon the subject of the great increase in the number of lunatics admitted into the hospices of Paris, and, indeed, of France in general, within these few years, MM. Pariset and Esquirol were consulted, in order to learn from them its real cause, that means might be devised for remedying the evil. M. Pariset was of opinion, that in Paris, as well as throughout the whole of France, where mental diseases are treated, there is annually a sensible increase in the number of lunatics. Everywhere the houses destined for the treatment of mental diseases have become insufficient. Is the augmentation then

* *Vide* Report made to the Council General, already quoted.

in France real, is it only apparent, or is it both? Before the Revolution, it is more than probable that there existed many idiots and maniacs either in religious establishments, in families, in hospitals, or in prisons. A false shame, increased by the deplorable state of lunatic-institutions, prevented many persons from placing the deranged members of their families in them. Those who were so placed were loaded with chains. Justice, too, was not sufficiently discriminating, and punished frequently as criminal what was merely the effect of insanity. Thus mental alienation was either neglected or misunderstood, and hence arose the small appearance of lunacy, while, in fact, it existed everywhere. During those revolutions which overturned and destroyed the social elements of society, during the thousand changes of fortune from misery to rank and wealth, and from riches and honour to poverty, which for years overwhelmed the kingdom, there must have been many causes for the production of maladies of the mind; but in the confusion and mass of events these remained unobserved and unattended to. When peace was restored to Europe, thousands of soldiers were suddenly thrown back upon the country, bringing with them irritation, disappointed ambition, and humiliation. This was remarkably the case after the *Cent Jours;* and Dr Pariset says, that, during the first years of his service, the greater number of lunatics admitted into the establishment had long served in the army,—all were furious, and few were cured. In general, every

sudden and unexpected change either in the physical or moral order of things, is pernicious to the health and to reason. The spectacle of so much grandeur so strangely acquired, not only excited astonishment, but raised up, even in the coarsest minds, hopes and illusions of the most dangerous kind. Everywhere were to be found reformers and founders of empires and constitutions; simple artizans thought themselves destined to overturn kingdoms and mount thrones. Such beliefs, unfortunately, are the most difficult to get rid of; for of all species of madness that originating in pride is the most incurable; the person can only be kept in order by flattering that pride, and to do so is to establish more firmly the malady. Hitherto, then, much of the increase in the number of lunatics has been due to the political and military revolutions of late years; if the increase should still continue, the causes must be looked for in a more intimate acquaintance with the elements of society.

M. Esquirol divides the causes of increase into general and local, and it is his opinion, that, though in reality not augmented, lunatics are become more numerous, to use his own words, *parcequ'ils sont plus en évidence.* Formerly lunacy was accounted quite incurable. Those persons afflicted with it were sent, if rich, into convents,—if poor, were retained at home. Since M. Pinel demonstrated the possibility of a cure, and since the hospitals have been administered with more care and attention, the repugnance of families to have recourse to them has

been gradually dying away. In Paris, the increase has been in proportion to the improvement, and throughout the kingdom, though not so marked, still the same may be perceived.

If the prefect of police should arrest in the streets any individual supposed to be insane, who is disturbing the public peace, he must first ascertain his lunacy by an examination made by the medical officers attached to the police, and grant a certificate to that effect. He must then transmit him to the central bureau, to undergo a second examination; after receiving a certificate from which his confinement is ordered. If his family should interfere, and wish, for example, to transfer the patient from the Bicêtre or Salpétrière to Charenton, or a private madhouse, the prefect must order the transfer; the family of course then remaining charged with the expense of maintenance.

In France, lunatics are under the protection of the *procureurs-généraux* of the courts of first instance. By the Code Civil, any person who has attained majority, and is in a decided state of imbecility or madness, should be interdicted (*interdit*); and, in cases of furious insanity, if the parents or friends do not bring forward the interdiction, the king's procureur is called upon to do so. Every demand for a sentence of interdiction is made before the tribunal of first instance; and the king's procureur must always be present at the interrogation of the defendant. Appeal is allowed from the judgments pronounced to the courts of appeal.

The same laws that apply to the guardianship of minors apply to lunatics interdicted by the judgment of the courts.

In the present state of the legislation, the administrative authority, to obviate the troublesome consequences resulting from the liberty enjoyed by a lunatic, is authorised to arrest him, and place him provisionally in a situation of safety. But this measure, which is essentially provisional, does not dispense with the necessity of the tribunals pronouncing definitively upon his state. It is to them alone that the right belongs of declaring by judgment the insanity of the individual, after having interrogated him, and heard the report of witnesses and the opinion of medical officers. When a lunatic has been provisionally arrested by the administrative authority, the tribunal of the place of his domicile must pronounce upon his state; and it is upon this judgment that the administrative authority is entitled to place him in the house destined for the reception of lunatics.* If an individual confined in a state of insanity recover his reason, it is the tribunal which warranted his confinement that must order his liberation. In no case does the administrative authority possess this right; it can only originate the proceeding when it deems there is just occasion for it.

To be admitted into a private madhouse, no other

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* Lettre du Ministre de la Justice au Ministre de l'Intérieur.

formality is necessary than a certificate of one or two physicians; but on the day of admission the proprietor of the establishment is bound, under a penalty, to transmit to the commissary of police, a declaration, bearing the name, surname, age, and profession of the person admitted; the description of his malady, and the names and address of the individuals who have brought him there. This declaration is transmitted to the prefect of police, who immediately sends a commissary and two medical officers to ascertain more accurately the condition of the individual in question.

In the special establishment of Charenton, near Paris, it is necessary that the parents of a deranged person, after having obtained a certificate of his mental incapacity, should apply to the mayor of the commune where he has been domiciliated. It is he who makes application for admission to the director of the establishment.

It may just be added, with regard to the mode of admission into the hospitals of Paris, that, in cases of extreme urgency, the physician in charge of a lunatic may order his admission; but then the house-agent is bound to legalize this admission, by sending his certificate immediately to the Central Bureau.

In the different provinces of France, it is enough, in some cases, to treat with the administrations of hospitals for admission; at other times, and most frequently, it is absolutely necessary to have an order from the mayor of the commune, or prefect of the

department in which the establishment is situated. In some departments it is requisite that the individual should be interdicted by a civil tribunal before his admission can be authorised. The medical men who give certificates of mental alienation are, in several parts of the country, appointed for that purpose by the prefects; elsewhere, any doctor in medicine is entitled to give a certificate. In whatever way, however, admission into a madhouse is regulated, it must be said, that the public authorities take full and ample measures to prevent the slightest chance of abuse, or of arbitrary encroachment upon the liberty of any individual.*

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* The select committee of the House of Commons, at the commencement of its report of 1827, proposes different regulations as worthy of being adopted. Amongst others are the following:—

"That the Secretary of State of the Home Department do, on the day of , in every year, by an instrument under his hand and seal, appoint persons, of whom not less than five shall be police-magistrates, together with five physicians, to be visitors within the cities of London and Westminster, within seven miles thereof, and within the county of Middlesex, and that the Secretary of State do appoint a clerk, &c.

"That the said visitors do meet at least four times a-year, five to be a quorum, (of whom at least two shall be police-magistrates,) at such meetings, to grant licenses for keeping houses for the reception of two or more lunatics. Such licenses to be for one year only. In any case of refusal, reasons for such to be stated in writing.

"In other parts of England the magistrates in quarter-sessions are to grant licenses.

Any one cured of this malady finds no difficulty in obtaining permission to quit the establishment in which he has been confined. It may be given by the attendant physician as soon as he considers the cure complete. But if the admission has been warranted by a civil tribunal, by the king's procureur, by a mayor, or by a prefect, it depends upon them alone to authorise the dismissal. If an individual has not been cured, and is reclaimed by those persons entitled, from their connexion with him, to do so, his condition must be certified by the physician of the establishment, and the certificate must be transmitted to the authority that warranted the admission. The same authority then determines how far he is in a state to be intrusted to his friends.

Since the improvement which has taken place in the treatment of lunatics in France, the average

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" That no keeper of any house licensed for the reception of lunatics shall receive any, except paupers, without first having an order in writing from the hand of the person by whose order such lunatic is sent to the house. This order shall state the connexion or relationship between such person and the lunatic; also the name, place of residence, and former occupation of the latter; the date of the commencement of his illness; and a certificate of two members of the Colleges of Physicians or Surgeons, or of two licensed apothecaries."

It is to be hoped that regulations of this nature may be soon put in force; for at present individual liberty is exposed to much danger. The certificate of a single medical man, without any other formality, is, in most cases, sufficient in England to warrant confinement in a madhouse.

period of the continuance of patients in lunatic-establishments has much increased. A greater degree of attention is now paid to the course and form of the malady, and to the probable chances of its recurrence. In comparing the mean term of confinement, as it was in the Hôtel Dieu, and now is in the Bicêtre and Salpétrière, the difference is very remarkable. In the Hôtel Dieu it was 51 days, in the Salpétrière it is now 126, and in the Bicêtre 80. The physician is not, at the present day, satisfied with dismissing his patient the moment he appears convalescent, but keeps him under his eye for a long period after that convalescence has taken place. The advantages resulting from such a practice are evident in the diminution of relapses. In the Bicêtre these are 52 in 311, being about 17 per cent., or 1 in 6; in the Salpétrière 66 in 454, being about 15 per cent., or 1 in 7. As a contrast to this, it may be stated, that, out of 641 dismissed from the Hôtel Dieu as cured, 453 were afterwards found to have been received into the Bicêtre, Salpétrière, and Charenton; and it is probable, could the history of the remainder have been traced, that the greater number of them were in a similar state.

The number of special hospitals solely for the reception of lunatics does not exceed ten. They are situated at Armentières (*Nord*), Lille (*Nord*), Marseille (*Bouches du Rhone*), Avignon (*Vaucluse*), Bordeaux (*Gironde*), Charenton (*Seine*), Mareville (*Meurthe*), Saint-Meen (*Ille et Villaine*), Rennes (*Ille et Villaine*), Saint-Venant (*Pas de Calais*).

Of these ten establishments, that of Armentières receives males only,—the rest receive patients of both sexes. Each has a director and directress, who live in the house. A commission of surveillance, as it is termed, under the immediate authority of the prefect, superintends its affairs. The establishment of Charenton is directly among the attributes of the minister of the interior, who nominates and appoints the commission, which consists of five members. These special establishments, however, by no means contain all the lunatics of the kingdom; they are received, besides, into the general hospitals of the Bicêtre and Salpétrière in Paris, and into the hospitals of Rouen, Montpellier, Nantes, Toulouse, Besançon, Strasbourg, Orleans, Limoges, Clermont, Maçon, Poitiers, Tours, and of other considerable towns. In many of these, it must be confessed, there is yet much room for improvement; but, at the same time, in several of them there have been constructed of late new and commodious buildings for the lunatic portion of their inmates. To the Salpétrière and Bicêtre, however, few objections can now be made. M. Pinel, whose name is justly celebrated in France and throughout Europe, has been the means of bringing about the reform so loudly called for at the commencement of the century, and of imparting to these institutions a reputation deservedly high. Though not solely destined for lunatics, still they are the principal establishments of the kingdom for the reception of persons afflicted with mental maladies; and from the great

numbers they contain, as well as the excellent system of management adopted in them, they are highly deserving of consideration.

When the General Hospital Council of the capital entered upon its functions towards the beginning of the century, there were no wards, either in the Bicêtre or Salpétrière, for the medical treatment of lunatics deemed curable. They were, in consequence, sent to Charenton, where one franc and a half a-day were paid for their maintenance. Buildings, however, were not long of being erected in them for this purpose, and, under the care of M. Pinel, the medical treatment was speedily put upon a systematic footing. These new erections are spacious and convenient; and there are attached to them gardens and vacant spaces of ground for exercise and amusement. In the year 1801 the lunatics of Paris were frequently imprisoned several in the same cell; at present, each has his own bed, his own allowance of every thing that is necessary for comfort; he has the advantage of a large space for exercise. In the Bicêtre, the new buildings consist of two ranges of cells on the ground-floor, and wards on the second floor, parallel on a line of more than 150 feet. They contain 100 beds, and the space between them serves as a promenade for convalescents. Each range of building has a gallery, the one towards the south, supported by stone pillars, and reserved for a covered walk; the other closed in, and heated as a place where the patients assemble together. Till within a year or two, it was never

deemed necessary to heat the abodes of lunatics, even in winter; at present, these cells and apartments are properly heated with warm air conveyed by pipes. The floors are of wood, and are 18 inches above the level of the external soil.

The new buildings of the Salpétrière are 200 feet long, and form, in like manner, two parallel ranges. They contain 130 beds, and are joined together by a covered gallery interrupted by two buildings for baths. To each is attached a large piece of garden-ground. The beds are reserved for lunatic females attacked with incidental diseases, or in a state of convalescence. Each ward contains 24 beds, and the size has been calculated with reference to the allowance of air supposed to be necessary to the health of the inmates. This allowance, or, in other words, the dimensions of the ward or chamber are calculated at six cubic fathoms for the sick and four for the healthy. These proportions, however, are by no means to be observed in the older buildings. Though much has been done, by throwing down partitions, and by other contrivances, to render them agreeable to the existing ideas of health and comfort, a great deal yet remains to be done. Establishments of such a size as the Bicêtre and Salpétrière are not all at once to be altered; the improvements must be gradual, and, in proportion as an advance is made, still farther improvements may be discovered.

The distribution of the lunatics that has been adopted has not only promoted the regularity of

the internal and domestic management of these great establishments, but has aided powerfully in hastening the cure and meliorating the condition of the unfortunate inmates. Quarrels and disputes are prevented, and dissension seldom intrudes. Without classification it would almost become necessary to confine closely the whole population. As it is, the low-spirited and melancholy have full and ample room for exercise in the open air, in a space planted with trees, which at once afford them shelter from the sun, and form an agreeable and enlivening object of contemplation. Instead of being confined within bare and lofty walls, casting an air of gloominess over what is intended for relaxation, and in a space little better than the cell which they have left, they here possess an open, free, and pleasant promenade, of which the effects cannot fail to be signally beneficial upon the malady of their mind. Those females who have so far recovered as to present no longer the more violent symptoms of their disease, but whose state is still so precarious that a slight circumstance might occasion a relapse, and that, too, even in an exasperated form, have the free enjoyment of a garden laid out for their special use. No useless constraint or severity is employed, and those patients who have been admitted in the most furious states of madness have in consequence, in a very short space of time, recovered their natural tranquillity. All use of chains, as a means of coercion, has been done away with in the capital, and indeed it may now be

said, in general all over the country. Perhaps, in one or two remote parts of the kingdom, to which the progress of improvement has not yet attained, they may, in some cases, be employed; but in Paris, where there are 4000 lunatics, the only means of coercion in use are the strait-jacket, the chair, in which the patient is confined by leathern thongs, confinement in a chamber, and sometimes, though very rarely, the cold bath. The absurdity, the mischief arising from the use of irons cannot better be pointed out than in the following ironical passage of M. Pinel: "C'est un admirable invention que l'usage non interrompu des chaines pour perpetuer la fureur des maniaques avec leur état de détention, pour suppléer au defaut de zèle d'un surveillant peu éclairé, pour entretenir dans le cœur des aliénés une exaspération constante avec un desir concentré de se venger, et pour fomenter dans les hospices le vacarme et le tumulte."

Douches have been employed with great success as a means of restraint as well as of cure, and have been found beneficial when all other means have failed. It is, however, to the attention paid to the selection of managers and attendants that the most marked benefits are to be referred; and in Paris the hospital-administration has used all its influence to ensure a proper choice of these persons.

The average number of lunatic-admissions into the Bicêtre and Salpétrière, from 1801 to 1821, may be stated at 600 annually; that number has since increased to between 800 and 900, of which

the greater portion are females. Of the total number in the two hospices, which in 1824 was 2507, there were 1698 below fifty years of age, and 809 above. This number is classed in divisions, each of which is again divided into three sections, the insane, idiots, and epileptics. These sections are farther subdivided into five classes; those under medical treatment, those afflicted with incidental diseases, the tranquil incurable, the furious incurable, and the convalescent. When there happens to be an excess of numbers in any one of these subdivisions, this classification is necessarily for a while interrupted. Those who are tranquil are then placed for the time in the divisions of the aged and infirm.

M. Pariset says, there are very many divisions in the causes of alienation; they are original, accidental, natural, general, local, exterior, interior, physical, moral, and mixed. There are some that belong to several of these classes, and which do not belong more properly to one than the other of them. It is difficult then to avoid repetitions, and even contradictions, if not real, at least apparent, in forming a table of these causes; but in the following tables, the one drawn up under the eyes of Dr Pariset, the other of Dr Esquirol, physicians of the Bicêtre and Salpêtrière, these difficulties have been as far as possible avoided, and, as far as correctness can be obtained, they must be accounted correct:—

TABLE I.—MEN.

	Causes of Alienation.		Number admitted in 1822.	1823.	1824.	Tot.
Physical Causes.	*Original or Primitive Causes.*					
	From vices of organization,	Excessive irritability,	10	17	12	39
		Idiocy,	28	33	21	82
		Natural or premature old age,	45	35	37	117
	Accidental from trouble or weakness,	Over work,	4	3	1	8
		Want,	23	34	14	71
		Onanism,	8	15	14	37
	Secondary Causes.					
	From previous malady.	Maladies of the skin,	2	2	3	7
		Surgical, (wounds, scars, &c.)	17	6	8	31
		Syphilis,	2	6	4	12
		Hydrocephalus,		2		2
		Epilepsy, convulsions, &c.	37	49	37	123
	Internal maladies ill treated or still subsisting,	Fevers of every description, tubercular phthisis, diseases of the heart,	49	44	44	137
	External from emanations of unhealthy substances,		6	6	10	22
	Internal from abuse of wine and strong liquors,		38	38	50	126
Moral Causes.	Religion misunderstood,		4	1	2	7
	Pretended,			1	1	2
	Ambition,		18	9	11	38
	Pride,		5	13	7	25
	Love and jealousy,		16	4	10	30
	Political events,		6	3	2	11
	Chagrin,		25	16	32	73
Mixed causes, bad treatment in education, &c.			8	1	9	18
Unknown causes,			23	35	19	77
	Totals,		374	373	348	1095

TABLE II.—WOMEN. (*Salpétrière.*)

	Causes of Alienation.	Entered in 1821.	1822.	1823.	Tot.
Physical Causes.	Hereditary,	33	34	45	112
	Vices of organization, or an imperfect development of the intellectual faculties,	11	13	20	44
	Efforts of the first menstruation, spontaneous suppression of the menses,	10	9	8	27
	Consequences of delivery or suckling,	24	22	24	70
	Cessation of menstruation at the critical period,	36	32	26	94
	Progress of age, old age,	28	47	37	112
	Congestions, cerebral hemorrhages producing paralysis and delirium,	39	26	35	100
	Epilepsy,	7	8	11	26
	Hysteria,	7	11	8	26
	Abuse of mercury,	2	1	3	6
	Abuse of spirituous liquors,	19	19	21	59
	Syphilis,	2			2
Moral Causes.	Misconduct, libertinism,	14	15	12	41
	Domestic distresses,	42	22	35	99
	Reverse of fortune,	4	8	15	27
	Profound misery,	11	15	11	37
	Religious remorse, &c.	14	8	8	30
	Anger,	2	3	2	7
	Crossed love,	17	22	22	61
	Jealousy,	9	6	8	23
	Fright,	8	14	7	29
Unknown causes,		130	124	126	380
	Totals,*	469	459	484	1412

M. Esquirol says, that on one-fourth of the number admitted it is impossible to obtain any informa-

* *Vid.* Reports formerly cited.

tion; that on a half the cause of the evil is only known after the individuals have remained some time in the hospice, or even are cured and fit to be dismissed. He adds, that he has reason to believe that hereditary madness is more frequent than mentioned in the table. The inmates were many of them afflicted with syphilis; but he thinks that only twice he could trace the delirium directly to that malady as the cause.

The classification at present adopted in the lunatic establishments of Paris occasions a difference in the medical and alimentary regimen. Those under medical treatment, convalescent, and suffering under incidental maladies, and placed consequently in the general infirmary, are subjected to a particular medical treatment, and to the diet of the sick; whilst all the others receive merely the ordinary daily visit of the medical attendant, and the ordinary diet of the house. The number of patients in the former condition was, according to the report of the administrative commission in 1826, 532,—in the latter 2140.

The number of lunatics cured during the years 1822-23-24 was 382 males, 482 females; total 864, or annually 288.* The number of cures during

* The following table, extracted from the work of M. Dubuisson, entitled *Des Vesanies ou Maladies Mentales*, will not fail to prove interesting, as it shows the proportion of cures in different establishments and different countries:—

the first year of admission was 746; from the second to the seventh year, 118. The number below

France.	Period of Treatment.	No. treated.	No. cured.	Prop. cured.
Charenton.				
Extract from the *Traité de l'Aliénation Mentale* of M. Pinel,	22d Nov. to 22d July, 1800,	97	33	0.34
Extract from the manuscript of M. le Dr Royer Collard,	1806	365	134	0.47
Manuscript of M. Chamseru,	6 first months of 1807,	214	91	0.42
Bicêtre.				
From the manuscript of M. Chamseru,	6 last months of 1807,	102	33	0.32
Salpétrière.				
Extract from M. Pinel as above,	1801 to 1806,	1002	473	0.47
Do. do.	1806 to 1807,	531	286	0.55
Extract from a Report made by M. Pinel to the Institute,	1812 to 1814,	891	413	0.46
Establishment of M. Esquirol.				
Extract from his Dissertation *Sur les Passions considerées comme Causes de l'Aliénation Mentale*,		66	41	0.62
Establishment of M. Dubuisson.				
Extract from the registers,		300	177	0.59
	Total,	3568	1681	0.47

fifty years of age was 789,—above fifty, 175. The proportion of cures to admissions then is about 1 : 3; at the same time, if relapses be taken into account, it is not so high. The relapses for each year average 82, or, in reference to admissions, 1 : 10; but these do not always merit the name of relapses; for it is ascertained that a great proportion of them arise from causes quite unconnected with the ori-

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England.				
Bethlehem.				
Extract from Haslem,	1748 to 1794,	6874	2557	0.29
Do.	1803	422	204	0.48
St Luke.				
Extract from Tuke,	1759 to 1801,	6458	2811	0.43
Do.	1807	263	108	0.41
York Hospital,	1789	599	286	0.47
Quakers' Establishment, near York.				
Extract from Tuke,	1796 to 1811,	149	54	0.36
	Total,	16,765	6020	0.35
Berlin	1803,	413	117	0.28
Austria.				
Vienna.				
Hill on Insanity,	1796 to 1797,	451	122	0.27
	Recapitulation.			
France,		3568	1681	0.47
England,		16,765	6020	0.35
Prussia,		413	117	0.28
Austria,		451	122	0.27
	Total,	21,197	7940	0.37

ginal malady. Those strictly deserving the name, from a return of the original malady, are no more than one-eighteenth for males, and one-thirty-fourth for females on the admissions, or one-fifth for males, and one-sixteenth for females, on the cures. The great difference in favour of females arises from the circumstance of their being retained a longer time in the establishment before being dismissed as cured. Were not such the case, it is probable, from their more helpless condition, the relapses would be as frequent, and more so, than with the males.

Upon making inquiry into the alleged number of dismissals from the Hôtel Dieu before the present system was adopted, it would appear, that, out of 901 lunatics of the two sexes, 143 only were transferred as incurable, 117 died, and 641 were dismissed. This is a result that could never have been looked for, considering the miserable condition of the Hôtel Dieu at the time. But the registers of that hospital gave no account of the exact state these persons were in at the moment of dismissal. Were they all cures, the improvements of late years have been attended with a very extraordinary effect of diminishing, not of increasing these.

The writers, however, of the reports of 1822-23-24, startled, as they well might be, at the circumstance, made particular inquiry into the real state of matters, and they found, that out of the 641 dismissed from the Hôtel Dieu, they could trace 453 afterwards received into the hospitals of Charenton, Bicêtre, and Salpétrière,—a sufficient proof that the

alleged cures did not deserve the name. It is probable, could the history of the remainder have been traced, that the greater number of them were in a similar situation, or had died in a state of mental alienation. Besides, in general, the Hôtel Dieu only received such lunatics as were in a high state of delirium ; seldom when afflicted with the melancholic and more quiet forms of the disease ; which, however, it is well known, are the most difficult to cure. The authors of the report then came to the conclusion, from the documents and information they had collected, that at the end of the last century the cures formed a very small proportion,—at the most favourable calculation, not more than one-fifth,—whereas at present they form two-fifths.

The mortality of lunatics for the years 1822-23-24, combined, was 1091, or 364 annually ; of these 480 were below fifty years of age, 611 above. This mortality, at first sight great, becomes less remarkable, when it is considered how many aged persons in a state of dotage are included in the number.

The total lunatic population of the Bicêtre and Salpétrière was	for 1822,		2490
Ditto,	for 1824,		2672
The average mortality for all classes	in 1822 was 1 in		9.08
	in 1824,	1	10.31
The mortality of maniacs alone,	in 1822,	1	12.61
	in 1824,	1	13.24
The mortality of persons in their dotage,	in 1822,	1	4.91
Ditto ditto,	in 1824,	1	6.06

In fact, many of the inmates of these establishments are rather afflicted with old age and dotage than with insanity, and, to judge of the real mortality of lunatics, it should be taken upon such only as are under 50 years of age.

The causes of death for the three years, 1822-23-24, united, were as follow :—

	Men.	Women.	Total.
1. Organic maladies of the brain and its membranes,	156	262	418
2. Maladies of the thoracic organs,	51	147	198
3. Phlegmasiæ of the abdominal viscera,	156	150	306
4. Cutaneous phlegmasiæ,	1	2	3
5. Cachexies,	83	27	110
6. Surgical maladies,	20	27	47
7. Undetermined maladies,	5	4	9
Total,	472	619	1091

Of the total number of lunatics in the hospices of Paris on the 31st December, 1824, 311 were from 33 different departments of France, 205 of whom were in quality of pensioners: 57 lunatics belonging to the department of the Seine also paid board, and the receipts from these 262 amounted to 89,894 francs.

In the Bicêtre and Salpétrière all revenues possessed by lunatics of the department of the Seine not exceeding 150 francs (£6) a-year, are given up to them, under the title of *secours*. When their revenues exceed this sum, the excedent remains in *Caisse des Pauvres*, to liquidate in part or whole

the daily payment of one franc. These rules, however, are not invariable. The council is at liberty to make exceptions; it may augment or diminish the sum granted as *secours*, according as the moral condition of the individual permits his appreciating its use; or as he may have a wife and family that depend upon him for support and maintenance.

The full medical service of the Salpétrière is intrusted to a head-physician, a physician in ordinary, a surgeon, a medical inspector (*inspecteur du service de santé*), and two or three *élèves*, as they are termed, who act the part of clerks, and see that the orders of the physician are properly attended to. The ordinary attendants are in the proportion of one to fifteen, and the greater number of them have been once confined in the house. It has been found that, on this account, they are kinder and more compassionate to the unfortunate individuals on whom they attend. The full diet of maniac females in the Salpétrière is as follows:—

Daily,	White Bread,	24 ounces
	Below 75 years of age,	12 centilitres of wine*
	From 75 to 80,	24
	From 80 to 85,	36
	Above 85,	50
Dinner,	One chopin of broth,	
	Four ounces of dressed meat (eight ounces when raw).	

* A centilitre is equal to 0.5841 of a cubic inch, and 93 centilitres are equivalent to 1 Paris pint.

Supper, { One chopin of broth. Six ounces of fresh vegetables, or one-tenth of a pint of dried vegetables, also ten drachms of cheese, or a certain quantity of fruit.

During the course of the year this diet is varied as the vegetables are concerned; they receive, for instance, alternately dried vegetables, cabbage, choux-croute, spinach, sorrel, or potatoes. Instead of cheese to supper, they get salads, cherries, gooseberries, apricots, plums, and grapes, according as these are in season.*

The lunatics of the Bicêtre receive 28 ounces of bread daily, and for dinner five ounces of dressed meat (ten ounces when raw). In other respects their diet is the same as that of the women. On Fridays and Saturdays neither men nor women receive butcher-meat,—but in lieu of it, an increase of vegetables.

In addition to this, any person may receive a portion of bread early in the morning, to prevent the

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* The diet in Bethlehem Hospital is partitioned as follows:—

Breakfast. Gruel.

Dinner on Monday, boiled suet-pudding.
on Tuesday, on Thursday, on Saturday, } meat, with vegetables.
on Wednesday, pea-soup, or baked rice-pudding.

Supper. Bread, with butter or cheese.

The quantity of bread daily does not appear to be more than twelve ounces.

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pangs of hunger from tormenting him before the usual hour of distribution. To avoid the chance also of the bad effects of thirst upon the constitution, fountains, with a plentiful supply of water, are constructed in all the courts of the hospital. So necessary is it accounted to the welfare of the inmates, that they should, on no occasion, suffer from the cravings of an inordinate appetite, so frequently an attendant on mental alienation, that, in the Salpétrière, there are several women whose business it is to make the round of the house during the night, and give meat and drink where these are required.

The great improvements which the General Hospital Council has made in the state of the buildings, and in the household management of the lunatic establishments under its charge, have been also extended to the medical service. Extensive and excellent baths have been formed, and great advantage has accrued from the use of them, under proper regulations. In the Salpétrière, the common baths are situated in one building, the douches in another; the water in the former is admitted from the bottom of the bath, to prevent the chance of accident; the latter are of three kinds; the first throws a slender stream of water (*filet d'eau*), which may be increased or diminished according to the pleasure of the physician; and, from the flexibility of the pipe which conducts it, may be directed with great facility to any part of the head. The second forms one continued shower; and the third dashes at once a mass of water over the patient. Every convenience is to

be found in these baths to obviate the occurrence of any mischief arising from the patients' clothes attracting humidity, or from other causes.

The attendance of the medical officers is daily; their visits long and particular. The observations they make are regularly taken down, in a book for the purpose, by the attendant clerks or *élèves*. The superintendent of each division must always assist the physician in his rounds, and each servant is required to be present, to give an account of the patients under his charge, and to answer to the questions of the physician. It is by the authority of the physician only that the different baths already spoken of can be administered, or the removal of a patient from one division of the building to another can be warranted; and it is by permission from him only, as already mentioned, that any stranger or friends of the inmates can be admitted into the establishment to visit them: it is not even in the power of the director to give this permission.

The general council grants full liberty to the physicians to make trial of every means that hold forth any chance of curing this dreadful malady; all that is required of them is, to consign in a register, *ad hoc*, their daily observations and remarks. In the Salpétrière a regular clinical course on mental diseases is given; a school has there been formed, which has already done much good to the country, and which promises, in the lapse of a few years, to become one of the most celebrated of the capital.

Amongst the other improvements in the manage-

ment of lunatics deemed incurable, that of keeping them still under the eye of the physician is not one of the least remarkable. Till within these few years, whenever a lunatic was pronounced incurable, he was removed, and never more seen by the medical attendant, except perhaps on his death-bed. At present they all receive daily visits, and the moment the slightest symptoms of returning reason, or the least appearance of change in the character of the malady are observed, they are instantly removed to the wards reserved for those directly under medical treatment. In former times, lunatics, upon entering the hospital, under the title of incurable, were placed at once in the quarter destined for this division of the malady: they were not received at all into the medical wards. This is now no longer the case; for the council, dreading that, in this way, individuals really curable might be confounded with the incurable, decreed, in 1824, that every one upon entrance, of whatever age or denomination he might be, should, in the first instance, be placed in the medical wards; that he should remain there for a certain time under the hands of the physicians, upon whose report his removal should be warranted.

At present the convalescents are employed in various descriptions of daily labour. Full occupation is one of the means most likely to restore the equilibrium of the mind, and to divert the vacant mind from wandering to a contemplation of its state. "Quand on est parvenu à leur donner l'habitude de s'occuper, ils ont fait un grand pas vers le retour de

leur raison, et ce premier succès en présage beaucoup d'autres; mais lors même qu'il ne produirait pas tous les avantages qu'on en espere, toujours est il certain que le travail adoucit leurs maux, calme leur irritation,—et le peu d'argent qu'il procure à ceux qui sont indigens diminue la somme de leurs privations."*

It is to be regretted that the means of amusement are as yet hardly sufficiently multiplied in the Bicêtre and Salpétrière; but their advantages have been recognised, and the General Council will not fail of soon establishing them as they ought to be.

It may be added, that the plunge, or rather the surprise bath, and the revolving machine, have both been recommended as powerful means of cure in particular cases. There exists, however, very pro-

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* Among the various lunatic establishments of Europe, very few in any country are so well managed as that of Berlin. Dr Ernst Horn, in his work entitled "*Œffentliche Rechenschaft über meine zwölfjährige Dienstführung als zweiter arzt des Königl. Charité-Krankenhauses in Berlin,*" gives a very interesting account of it, and of the methods of cure adopted by him during his period of service in that institution. The great object of the medical officers and other attendants seems to be that of keeping the patients in constant employment. No time is allowed them to dwell upon their own misfortunes. Every hour of the day is occupied in some work or some amusement, and these are varied as much as possible. The following table will show to what extent this was thought necessary by Dr Horn, and will point out, at the same time, the different means adopted for varying these occupations:—

perly, an extreme degree of unwillingness to put them into practice; and it is always with a feel-

Hours.	Sunday. | Monday. | Tuesday. | Wednesday. | Thursday. | Friday. | Saturday.	
5 — 6	Rising.—Cleaning.—Breakfast.	
6 — 7	Religious service.—Simple extracts from works suitable to the capacities of the hearers.	
7 — 8	Walking in the garden.—Different games, such as swinging and skittles.	Cutting wood, and digging the ground in the courts.
8 — 9		Occupied in dragging about the carriage for invalids.
9 —10		Military exercises.
10 —11	Attending church. (The quiet).	Application of the various descriptions of baths, in all forms and in all degrees.
11 —12		Instruction in drawing and painting.
12 — 1	Dinner.	
1 — 2	Vacant hour.	
2 — 3	Instruction and exercise in turner's and joiner's work.	
3 — 4	Amusements and games in the garden & court.	Instruction in geography, from a printed guide, illustrated by maps and globes.
4 — 5		Promenade in the garden.—Exercises with the balance, stilts, &c.
5 — 6		Simple and varied extracts, read aloud from amusing and easily comprehended works.
6 — 7	Supper.	
7 — 8½	Music or games.	In good weather, skittle-playing for a small prize.—In bad weather, in-door games at cards, dominos, chess, draughts, &c.
8½— 9	Religious duties as in the morning.	

The following is the recapitulation given by Dr Horn of the lunatics treated from 1st October, 1806, to 1st September, 1818:—

Existing on the 1st October, 1806,	210
Admitted during the 12 years,	1980
Total,	2190

ing of apprehension that the physician orders them to be tried, which is very rarely.*

Cured,	Insane,	811		
	Epileptic,	125	936	
Incurable,	Insane,	315		
	Epileptic,	202	517	
Removed elsewhere,	Insane,	174		
	Epileptic,	45	219	
Escaped,	Insane,	4		
	Epileptic,	2	6	
Died,	Insane,	257		
	Epileptic,	52	309	
		Total,		1987
Prop. cured to total,	1 : 2½	Remained Sept. 1, 1818,		203
Incurable,	1 : 4¼			
Deaths,	1 : 7 1/12	Total,		2190

* In the General Military Hospital at St Petersburg, the long-sleeved camisole is used to confine those lunatics who are violent, and straps of leather are employed to fasten them to their beds or to the ground in a manner by no means cruel. They have also a manner of confining an unruly patient, or one who has deserved correction, by means of a leather strap drawn across a room from side to side, with an upright pole, and leather rings for the hands and feet, so as to maintain the patient in an upright posture, and quite insulated. There is also a room, rather dark, and thickly wadded all round, as well as on the floor, into which a violent patient is turned loose.—*Vide* Dr Granville's Tour, v. ii. p. 279.

The lunatic-establishment at Aversa must, according to Dr Otto's account, be one of the most singular in Europe with respect to management. Prior to its formation, about 11 years ago, lunatics were confined in the *Ospedale degli Incurabili*,

Such is a short account of the condition of lunatics in the hospitals of Paris, and of the state and

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at Naples. The house, both outside and inside, is ornamented with all sorts of statues, flowers, and figures, which produce a most singular appearance. The building itself is two stories high, and the inmates, in general, sleep three or four in a room. Their beds are of iron; the outrageous alone sleep on mattresses placed on the stone floor. The means of coercion in use are the jacket of Pinel, in which the patients are confined as in a sack. In bed, the feet are placed through holes made in boards, and are there attached by straps, while a third strap is carried across the breast. A similar mode is adopted to keep them in an upright position. The following account of their treatment is nearly in Dr Otto's own words:—"The object constantly kept in view is the complete employment and mental occupation of the inmates; but the means made use of to effect this do not appear to be wisely chosen. That they should be employed in cutting wood and drawing water; that they should exercise their bodily strength in large open courts; that there should be a printing-office, where some set the types, while others print; that they should be exercised in translating French into Italian; that some should play at billiards, others be exercised in singing and music, is all useful and to the purpose. But to these are added so many absurd, childish, and even hurtful attempts at occupation, that there is much need of reform. Thus, for example, in all the wards the walls are bedaubed and disfigured with motley paintings of every description, good and bad. A chamber contains puppets of all sorts. In a large ward, where the lessons in music are given, the walls are painted from top to bottom with caricatures. There is a theatre, with all its appurtenances, in which the insane act plays at short intervals. The amusement of shooting in the court at the wooden figure of a man is one which, it is hardly necessary to say, may be attended with the most dangeous consequences."

extent of improvement that have taken place of late years in their physical, moral, and medical treatment. It only remains to say, that they are chiefly

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The following tables of the state of this establishment for the years 1826-27 are from a paper of Dr Ronchi, the consulting physician, inserted in the *Giornale del Regno delle due Sicilie*:—

Aliénés existant à la Maison d'Aversa au 1er Janvier, 1826.

	Manies.		Mélancolies.			Idiotisme.	Epilepsie, avec-			Total partiel.	Total général.
	Simples.	Furieuses.	Vraies.	Fausses.	Furieuses.		Manie.	Melanc.	Idiot.		
Hommes,	106	16	127	25	11	87	22	4	10	408	644
Femmes,	69		120			33		14		236	

Aliénés existant au 1er Janvier, 1827.

	Manies.		Mélancolies.			Idiotisme.	Epilepsie, avec			Convalescens.	Total partiel.	Total général.
	Simples.	Furieuses.	Vraies.	Fausses.	Furieuses.		Manie.	Melanc.	Idiot.			
Hommes,	92	21	116	29	11	94	23	5	13	10	414	633
Femmes,	38	24	7	22	34	75	5	1	4		219	

There existed on 1st January, 1826, 644 lunatics; 219 entered in the course of the year, giving a total of 863. Of this number, 230 died, or quitted the house, during the year. On the 219 cases entered in the course of the year there were 44 relapses, and on the 230 who left it, or died, there were 141 cures, 42 individuals improved in their mental condition, and 47 deaths.

This account of the Lunatic-Hospital of Aversa is given thus full from its having been spoken of for some time past as an establishment deserving of much praise, and worthy in many respects of imitation.

indigent, and that a very small proportion pay anything towards their maintenance.

The hospitals and hospices receiving lunatics, and also the special lunatic establishments throughout the kingdom, are properly destined for the reception of the poor and indigent of the departments in which they are situated. The whole of them, however, and especially the last, receive at the same time boarders, who pay a sum varying in its amount according to circumstances. To be admitted gratis into any one of them, it is necessary to belong to the department in which it is situated; but any one from another department will be admitted upon payment. This payment is often very trifling, and varies from 60 to 150 centimes (sixpence to fifteen pence) a-day, payable, as formerly stated, by the relations, municipality, or prefect. In some of the special hospitals there are quarters reserved for such as can pay a much higher board, for example, 1500, 1800, or 2000 francs (£60, £72, or £80 sterling). The most remarkable of the special establishments are those of Charenton and Bordeaux. The *Maison Royale de Charenton*, as it is named, is situated on a pleasant bank, about two leagues distant from Paris, in the *commune* of the same name, and close to the junction of the Seine and Marne. It is of very considerable extent, and receives lunatics of either sex gratis, or upon payment of a board, which varies according to the extent of accommodation and comfort required. In the year 1814, its administration was in great disorder; since then, however,

it has been reorganized, and it now presents perfect order and regularity in all its details. It is not, like the Bicêtre and Salpétrière, under the jurisdiction of the General Hospital Council, but is governed by a commission of five members, termed *Commission de Surveillance,* subject to the immediate authority of the minister of the interior. It is capable of containing above 400 lunatics. The minister of the interior has the right of nomination to twenty-four entire and twenty half-places. The ministers of marine and of war have also the right of claiming admission for a certain number of sailors and soldiers, upon paying at the rate of one franc and a half a-day for their maintenance. After the space of three months, if not cured, these individuals are transmitted to the Bicêtre or Salpétrière. The other inmates are divided into three classes, according to the amount of board they pay: the highest payment is 1300 francs (£52); the next 975 francs (£39); the lowest 650 francs (£26). No individual can be admitted except on presentation of his register of birth, and a judgment of *interdiction,* or an order of the prefect of police, or a requisition of the mayor of the arrondissement or commune where he has resided. In cases, however, of absolute necessity, persons may be admitted *d'urgence*, that is to say, without any previous formalities, provided the relations or guardians enter into an obligation to fulfil immediately the conditions prescribed by the regulations of the house. The total receipts and expenditure of this establishment may be averaged

at 400,000 francs (£16,000), 50,000 of which are at the cost of the state.

The private institutions in France for the reception of lunatics have of late years very much increased in number, though as yet they are far from being so numerous as in England. Many highly-respectable physicians have founded establishments of this description, both in the capital and in the principal towns. They are termed *Maisons de Santé des Aliénés*, and their management is in general excellent. They are principally destined for such individuals as can afford to pay a considerable board; this varies from 600 francs (£24) to 3000 (£120); in a few it is even higher. The local authorities throw no obstacle in the way of their formation; but, when established, they exercise over them a species of surveillance to prevent the chance of abuse against individual liberty. They do not often interfere in their internal management, except in cases where any disorder manifests itself.*

* Few of these private establishments are for the reception of paupers; and, considering the abuses which the report of the parliamentary committee has proved to exist in the private institutions for pauper-lunatics in the county of Middlesex, this is not to be regretted. Where a high board is paid, it is probable that the friends of a lunatic, as well as the self-interest of his keeper, will prevent much ill usage.... But where a pauper is admitted by a parish-overseer at a small board, it is hardly possible for the most vigilant attention of visitors to prevent abuse. The unfortunate being is perhaps from a distant part of the country; the overseers of his parish think they have done all that is required by paying for his maintenance;

and he is left to the care of a keeper, who may in a few cases chance to be humane, but who very seldom proves to be so.

Pauper-lunatics should be confined to public establishments: the public eye should be upon them; and in private institutions this cannot always happen. The proposal has been made in parliament, that establishments should be formed in different parts of the kingdom to receive the lunatics of a certain district of country. It is to be hoped that this idea will not be abandoned, for its results would be most beneficial. In France, the establishment of what are termed central-houses has long been proposed; and M. le Comte Lainé, in his report to the King, in 1818, when minister of the interior, strongly recommended their formation, and pointed out the advantages to be expected from them in the following terms:—"Ces inconveniens disparaitroient, si, comme quelques personnes l'ont proposé, on etablissait, pour la reclusion et le traitement des aliénés, un certain nombre de maisons centrales qui renfermeraient chacune trois à quatre cents insensés. Dans des maisons de cette importance, il serait facile d'établir les divisions et subdivisions utiles au bien-être des malades, de disposer des promenoirs, des dortoirs communs, et de réunir tous les avantages propres à contribuer à la guérison des insensés qui laissent quelque espoir. Les hommes de l'art les plus habiles ambitionneraient d'être à la tête de semblables établissemens; et, en même temps que ces asiles seraient des monumens de l'humanité et de la bienfaisance du gouvernement, ils serviraient d'écoles pour l'étude de l'infirmité la moins connue et la plus digne d'intérêt."

Before quitting the subject of lunatics, it may not be uninteresting to give a short account of an establishment peculiar in its kind, which exists in the kingdom of the Netherlands, in favour of this unfortunate class of beings. The village of Gheel, situated in the province of Antwerp, arrondissement of Turnhout, contains a population of about 7000 souls; and what is remarkable, a great number of lunatics and idiots have for a very long period past formed a part of this population. They are divided among the country people, and are employed according to their age and strength, but always without

constraint, in the labours of the fields. The liberty which they enjoy, the open free air, their occupations, and the tranquil life which they lead, restore to many of them the reason which distress or adversity had alienated.

Brussels, Antwerp, and many more of the neighbouring towns, instead of confining their lunatics in an hospice, where probably their malady may be increased, send them to Gheel. The hospices pay 90 florins annually for the maintenance of each, and supply them with clothing.

When the lunatics arrive at Gheel, they are at first conducted to a room adjoining the church, where a clergyman gives them the consolations of religion. They are then taken to their respective places of abode, and receive every attention from the persons who take charge of them.

When they belong to wealthy families, they are commonly boarded in the village, or with rich farmers, and enjoy, like the poorer class, an entire liberty.

There is scarcely a farmer in tolerably easy circumstances in the commune of Gheel who has not one and sometimes several lunatics boarded with him; and there is no instance of any one of them having ever committed the least excess.—Vid. *Journal d'Agriculture des Pays Bas. Le Globe,* 17 *Jan.* 1826. *Bulletin Universel,* t. viii. p. 139.

CHAPTER XI.

MENDICITY IN THE EARLY PERIODS OF FRENCH HISTORY. —ITS INCREASE, AND THE VARIOUS REGULATIONS ADOPTED FOR ITS SUPPRESSION.—THEIR INEFFICACY. —PLANS PROPOSED TO THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY BY THE COMITÉ DE MENDICITÉ AND DES SECOURS PUBLICS. —THEIR CHARACTER, AND TO WHAT EXTENT ADOPTED.

THE preceding account of public charitable establishments gives a partial view of what has been done to improve the state of the poor in France; but, numerous as these establishments are, they can extend only to a small portion of the population of the kingdom standing in need of aid. In every age and country there has existed a large class of persons dependent upon others for the means of subsistence. This is a necessary consequence of the state of society, and to a certain extent is requisite to its existence, although, if carried too far, it becomes dangerous and hurtful. Among the Greeks and Romans, and in the ancient world generally, a great mass of the population was in a state of slavery; but it was at the same time sure of being clothed, fed, and in general well treated. Those who were not in a state of slavery were supported by government, and when misery was likely to in-

crease from any unexpected calamity, public works were undertaken to give them employment. It is to this cause that Pliny attributes the construction of the pyramids of Egypt. Herodotus says, that in that country there were judges of police in each canton, whose business it was to receive from time to time from the inhabitants a report of their professions, their means of subsistence, and the condition of their families. The idle were punished as dangerous to the state. Solon, in like manner, made idleness synonymous with infamy, and ordered the Areopagus to inquire how individuals gained a livelihood. All were allowed to exercise some trade; and he who did not bring up his son to a profession was deprived of his reciprocal claim for assistance in his old age. In Rome, during the republic, and at the period of its highest glory, beggary was unknown, and one of the principal duties of the censors was to make diligent inquiry into the manner in which the citizens lived. As the republic sunk into the empire, and as the empire degenerated from power to weakness, the strict regulations of ancient Rome were forgotten; idleness and debauchery took the place of activity and virtue, and in a short time beggary was established almost as a profession. The *Dolce Farniente*, so well known among the modern Italians, began to form the enjoyment of the poor as well as the rich. The primitive Christians, supposing they were following the model of their Divine Master, recommended poverty and contemplation as the surest

means of pleasing the Divinity. But this poverty and contemplation, at first conscientiously practised, soon degenerated into beggary and idleness; and, in the reign of Constantine, the number of beggars (for they deserved no other name) professing the religion of Christ, had multiplied so as to be almost a scourge to the state. This prince, in his anxiety to check the increase of so dangerous an evil, and at the same time to ensure assistance and relief to the votaries of a religion which he himself had embraced, constructed various hospitals to receive and maintain them; but these were of little avail, as the persons for whom they were designed preferred to wander through the country. The number of paupers increased as Europe became sunk in the darkness of the middle ages, and it was not diminished by the liberal donations which were so common. It became a sort of duty to Heaven to succour the poor and indigent. The church of Rome forcibly recommended the plentiful distribution of alms; and, whilst the abuses and bigotry of that church cannot be palliated, it must be allowed that it never failed in charity to the dependent classes of society. In fact, the only establishments of the time which merited the character of magnificence were founded in a great measure for the relief of the poor; and the many religious houses which were so splendidly endowed, served, in many respects, as hospitals and asylums, to which the indigent flocked for assistance. In the early periods of the French monarchy there was no lack of charit-

able bounty. Clovis II., who reigned in 638, dissipated all his father's wealth in feeding the poor during a year of scarcity, and in founding, on the instigation of St Landry, Bishop of Paris, the Hôtel Dieu of that city. Charlemagne was no less attentive to the condition of his poorer subjects; but he was more enlightened in the manner in which he displayed his charity. He published an *ordonnance*, enforcing the necessity of each *seigneur* and *abbé* providing for the maintenance of the poor of his own territory, and preventing them from wandering over the country as beggars. He farther authorised all private persons, who should detect individuals begging under the pretence of feigned infirmities, to seize them, and reduce them to servitude. But great events soon succeeded in the history of France. The irruption of the Saracens, and subsequently the spirit of the Crusades, occupied the minds of men to the exclusion of every thing else; and the legislature in consequence being engrossed with more critical and important matters, the number of the idle and indigent increased in the absence of any attempts to repress them.

The 11th century was remarkable for the number of charitable institutions that were founded throughout France. The impulse first given in the capital soon extended throughout the realm. Hospitals and hospices sprung up in every direction, and, along with the convents which already existed in all parts of the country, gave daily assistance to thousands of individuals. But as the cha-

rity of the wealthy extended, the number of the poor also increased; demands for relief were not the less numerous or urgent that thousands had been already relieved. In the 10th, 11th, and 12th centuries, as M. Foderé expresses it, the clergy, the prince, the nobles, the great cities, and a few principal citizens, became the proprietors of a whole country. Such was the prevailing spirit of idleness, that this country lay uncultivated, and served merely as pasture. It was covered with pilgrims and persons of every denomination, who wandered about as in a state of starvation to reach the convents, the hospitals, or the table of some prince. It was long the practice to admit the poor to the tables of princes and nobles: thus King Robert, who reigned from 995 to 1031, always retained 6 or 700 of them in his suite, whom he fed and clothed.

Wherever industry made its appearance, and that was scarcely anywhere, mendicity of course diminished, and the state of the poor was improved; but it was long before manufactures or trade were established, and in the meantime the great mass of the population was buried in lethargy. The religion which held the country in chains prevented the extension of knowledge, and even of industry, among the people. Knowledge was accounted fit only for the clergy; the lay community were denied its benefits, and ignorance was inculcated as a species of pious duty. Industry again would have rendered them too independent of influence, and

was therefore equally to be discouraged. The greater nobles were too much occupied with their own personal aggrandizement, and in annoying their neighbours, and possessed too little principle of humanity to direct any attention to the condition of their inferiors, and ignorance and idleness accordingly went on increasing hand in hand. The institution of the mendicant orders of monkhood soon added to the mischief; for through them religion seemed to sanction more directly the practice of mendicity by its own example. In the earlier periods of monastic history, the inmates of monasteries had been required to work; they were prevented from being idle by an express law. The creation of mendicant-monks was thus a new feature in the religion of the church of Rome. In 1220, Almaric, patriarch of Antioch, and apostolic legate, and Albert, patriarch of Jerusalem, collected, in the deserts of the East, a tribe of Carmelites, whom they introduced into Europe. From them sprung the different orders of mendicant-monks; and the Vatican was not long of fulminating its decrees against such as dared to find fault with the character of their lives, or even with mendicity in general.

In the earlier ages of the French monarchy, all charitable establishments were accounted essentially religious; their administration was a function purely ecclesiastic; their management was only trusted to the clergy, and the civil authority could not interfere. This might arise from the imperfection of the civil government, or from the clergy

alone being accounted qualified, from their knowledge of letters, to direct such institutions. But whatever might be the cause, abuses soon sprung up, and their revenues were often diverted from their original purpose. At last the government did interfere, and in the 13th century letters patent were given to several orders of hospitallers, and to several hospitals and *maladreries*, both of the capital and of the provinces. The monarchs of France, from Philip Augustus downwards, all more or less directed their attention to these charitable establishments, and sought by degrees to infuse into their management a spirit of order and regularity. Whatever might have been the faults of system then, and the abuses these faults gave rise to, there was no want of charity throughout the kingdom. In fact, charity was too open-handed and indiscriminate; the church, whilst it recommended this virtue, put no limits to its exercise. If mendicants and indigent persons did not exist, it seemed as if it were thought necessary to create them, and that was not difficult to do. Agriculture was neglected, manufactures were discouraged, industry was checked; for where indiscriminate charity allowed none to want, the people felt no impulse or necessity to labour. The consequence of this state of things was, that in the lapse of time abuse merged into crime, and the dregs of society, unfettered by the laws of morality, while they took to mendicity from choice, were not content with the assistance they received, but became robbers, assassins, and crimi-

nals of every description. Many of the old letters-patent of the kingdom show the atrocity of character to which the mendicants that swarmed in every part of the country by degrees had arrived. In 1388, they were strongly suspected, and, indeed, were accused, of having poisoned the wells of Paris; and such was the impression made by their habitual misconduct and outrages, that several were executed without form of trial, in order to strike a salutary terror into the rest. They herded together in obscure retreats, which they rendered it dangerous to approach; and the crimes committed by this class of the community were not only the most frequent, but often also the most atrocious. Some slight measures, it is true, were adopted to repress their audacity; but the state itself wanted vigour, and the government was too much occupied in consolidating its own fabric, to pay much attention to an evil which seemed to affect private individuals more than the public authority.

In 1524 was promulgated the first rigorous edict against them. It ordered all mendicants to quit Paris, or to labour for their subsistence; but if labour was not provided for them, it was no where to be obtained, and the banishment from Paris merely shifted the evil from the capital to the provinces and the other towns, where in consequence every species of enormity was committed. The parliament of Paris, in 1532, ordered that mendicants should be confined or conducted by two and two to clean the city-drains. Their maintenance

was to be at the charge of the city. This law, however, did not remain long in force, the expense was burdensome, and the numbers notwithstanding did not diminish. Succeeding laws combined useless severity with great and almost total want of judgment. In 1532 mendicants were chained two and two; in 1535 they were condemned to be hanged if they did not quit Paris. These laws were renewed in 1543 and 1547, while, at the same time, no attempt was made to prevent or lessen the causes of that evil which these laws punished so severely, although springing often from necessity.

About this period several other great cities of France made particular laws against mendicity. Orleans, Chartres, Lyons, and Toulouse, established *Bureaux d'Aumones*, and the parliament of the last-named city forced persons in office (*les bénéficiers*) to give up a tenth of their revenues in favour of the poor. By letters-patent of Francis the First, dated 6th November, 1544, a general *Bureau des Pauvres* was instituted at Paris. This bureau was composed of 13 citizens, nominated by the *Prevôt des Marchands*, and of four counsellors to the parliament. It possessed the right of levying a certain poor's tax annually upon all princes, nobles, ecclesiastics, communities, and proprietors in general. It may be here stated, that the clergy could not refuse to contribute to any taxes raised for the support of the poor; for it is distinctly

stated in a canon of the second council of Tours, that they are not exempt.*

When engaged in placing the legislature of France upon a firm and unchangeable foundation, the illustrious Chancellor L'Hôpital directed his attention to the administration of the revenues of hospitals and the maintenance of the poor. Under his direction, in the reign of Charles IX., appeared the famous edict of 1561, which was followed, not long after, by the no less famous *ordonnances* of Moulins and of Blois. The *ordonnance* of Moulins enjoined all officers of justice to see that a proper account be given of the management of hospital-funds, and that the poor be maintained in their native territories by contributions of the community. The *ordonnance* of Blois ordered that the administrators of charity should be neither ecclesiastics, nobles, nor officers, but simple citizens, and that their charge should not endure above three years.

These laws were admirable for the time in which they were made; but the country was not yet prepared to receive good laws. It was in a state of confusion and anarchy; law possessed no force, or rather force was the only law. The great proprie-

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* *Ut unaquæque civitas pauperes et egenos incolas alimentis congruentibus pascat secundùm vires, ut tàm presbyteri quàm cives omnes suum pauperem pascant; quo fiet ut ipsi pauperes per alienas civitates non fatigenter.*

tors did not hesitate to take violent possession of many of the institutions founded for the poor, and make use of the revenues for their own purposes. Government might perhaps be aware of the abuses that existed; but it was in no condition to attempt their remedy. It was often obliged to truckle to the very persons who were foremost in this kind of spoliation.

During the 16th century it was recognized as a principle, that the maintenance of the poor was a local charge. The *ordonnances* of 1536–66–86 prove this beyond a doubt. In the last it is ordered, that the inhabitants of all the cities of the realm should be obliged to nourish and support their own poor, who should not be allowed to wander from one place to another. But, in spite of all these *ordonnances*, many of them good, little or no improvement took place in the general state of the kingdom. Money was distributed, but in a manner that did harm instead of good; for the strict justice, which prefers the general to individual interest, was not attended to. Thus, while abundant alms were given, the number of mendicants was by no means diminished. Their audacity remained as great as ever; and the wretched state of the country, a prey to anarchy and civil war, was unfortunately too well calculated to encourage the spirit of idleness that everywhere prevailed.

During the reign of Henry III. the provinces were in such distress from the civil wars, that the poor could not find subsistence, and crowded to

Paris in great numbers. In consequence of this influx of persons in a state of want and misery, a contagious disease broke out. The king's *procureur* was forced to make remonstrances to parliament upon the subject; and two *arrêts* were passed in the year 1596, ordering, that all vagabonds and beggars, on pain of being strangled or hanged, should return to their own provinces; that, in order that they might be known, their heads should be shaved, and two *archers* should be placed at each gate of the city to prevent the entrance of any more. The rigour and even ferocity of the various edicts promulgated about this time, and for a century after, prove the weakness of the government. Unable to discover the real means of repressing a disorder which had increased to so distressing a height, it sought to check it by terror. But this method entirely failed, for excessive rigour only ended in impunity. It was impossible to condemn the many poor wretches that were arrested to all the punishments threatened. There always existed a sentiment of compassion in the breast of their judges; and, except in cases where mendicity was combined with some more decided crime, the laws were seldom put in force. Had it been otherwise, many persons really deserving of pity must have been confounded with those that were guilty: no line could have been drawn, and it is likely that, while one man was punished, others more wary and cautious, though much more criminal, would have found means of escaping the punishment de-

nounced. Still, as every year brought fresh disaster and continued calamity, these violent edicts were renewed, and each renewal was attended with as little benefit as formerly. It never seemed for a moment to strike the framers of them, that, to render them of any avail, some means of occupying the persons in question must have been devised. In the 17th century these edicts became more particular and precise. One of 1656 forbade all persons, of whatever quality or condition, to give alms to beggars in the streets or public places under a penalty of 4 *livres*; it also forbade householders to harbour them under a penalty of 100 *livres* for the first and 300 for the second offence. All beds and bedclothes on which any mendicant had slept were forfeited to the profit of the General Hospital, which was commenced in this year; and the *archers* of which, as they were termed, had full and even tyrannical authority over the poor. They might of themselves imprison them, or inflict the scourge and *carcan*. They were in consequence objects of great detestation, and many plots were formed against them: in 1659 they suffered eight attacks from an armed mob; to defend their authority, therefore, other severe laws were necessary. In 1683, for the first time, several workhouses were established in Paris, and the police-regulations respecting them were marked with a similar severity. All mendicants were obliged to enrol themselves in a register kept at the Hôtel de Ville. They were forbidden to quit the workhouses during working

hours under pain of the *carcan*, or any other punishment the municipal officers thought proper to inflict. If they attempted to beg, they underwent a confinement of fifteen days for the first offence, and a condemnation of five years to the galleys for the second. In spite of all the ordonnances, regulations, and declarations, however, of the kings and parliaments of France, beggars swarmed everywhere. In fact, the laws had always been too multiplied and too contradictory to allow the magistrates to be aware even of the intentions of the legislature, and to act on them accordingly.*

When the *léproseries* and *maladreries*, as they used to be nominated in former times, in which persons afflicted with leprosy, syphilis, and other malignant diseases, were confined, fell into ruin, their revenues were seized upon by communities, and even by individuals, so imperfect was the character of their administration. This abuse was carried to such an extent, that it became necessary to attempt some mode of putting a stop to it. Henry IV., in 1606, ordered his grand almoner, vicars, and commissaries, to see that the revenues no longer required for persons afflicted with leprosy should be dis-

* The great author of *Crimes and Punishments* says, *We cannot call the punishment of a crime just, or, in other words, necessary, as long as the laws have not employed, to prevent it, the best means which the state of things and circumstances will permit.* From the account given of the various ordonnances against mendicity, it will be seen, that this was a maxim that entered little into the thoughts of the legislators of those days.

tributed among poor gentlemen and soldiers. Louis XIII., in 1612, decreed that their revenues should assist in restoring poor sick persons to health, in feeding the destitute, instructing children, and portioning out poor orphan girls. Louis XIV., in 1672, made over these revenues to the orders of St Lazare and of Notre Dame de Carmel; afterwards, however, thinking their original destination in this way too much altered, and that they should more directly be applied to the use of the poor, he revoked this edict; and by another, of 1693, reserved them for that purpose solely. The establishment of the Hospital-General of Paris was one of the many remarkable acts of this monarch's reign; for though not attended with all the benefit that was anticipated from it, it still forms an interesting epoch in the history of French charities. The preamble to the act which established it in 1656, stating, that as the different ordonnances of former kings had become useless and ineffectual, it was necessary to form some great establishment to check the disorders that had become so frequent in Paris, from the great numbers of indigent persons,—*Considérant ces pauvres mendiants comme membres vivans de Jesus Christ et non pas comme membres inutiles de l'Etat, et agissant dans la conduite d'un si grand œuvre non par ordre de police mais par le seul motif de charité.* The edict goes on to say, that, after having examined all the *ordonnances* and *réglemens* on the subject of the poor, and considered how far the plans proposed were adequate to the success of an undertaking that

is for the glory of God, as well as for the public good,—" De notre certaine science, propre mouvement, pleine puissance et autorité royale : Voulons et ordonnons que les pauvres mendians, valides et invalides, de l'un et de l'autre sexe, soient enfermés dans un hôpital pour être employés aux ouvrages, manufactures, et autres travaux, selon leur pouvoir, ainsi qu'il est amplement contenu au réglement, signé de notre main attaché sous le contre-scel des présentes, que nous voulons être executé selon sa forme et teneur." The edict lays down the method of administration to be adopted in the new establishment, defines its rights and privileges, and assigns the revenues that are to maintain it. Amongst other articles, there is one which calls upon every person to assist according to his means in its support; and should he refuse to do this of his free will, the parliament, on the demand of the procureur-général, might sue him for his proportion. This hospital was destined at first to receive all mendicants of Paris who had no means of gaining a livelihood; the only exceptions were those afflicted with disease and those who were married; the latter, however, receiving assistance from the hospital-funds. But this last exception was soon removed, and the married were admitted equally with the unmarried, as it was found, that though they cost annually about 200,000 livres to the establishment, they were as incorrigibly mendicant as ever.

But no sooner was this hospital put upon a proper footing, than Paris swarmed with beggars from

all parts of the country; the poor of the provinces hastened up to the capital; idleness forced many to this measure, want of work others, and at last, instead of the foundation of the Hospital-General proving a benefit, it became likely to do injury in many ways. As provision was made for the mendicants of Paris, the mendicants of the provinces saw a field open to them in this quarter, and their number increased to such an extent, that in the country, hands could scarcely be procured to perform the necessary labours of agriculture. Such being the case, Louis, in 1662, registered a new declaration, in which, after setting forth that the maintenance of the poor was a local charge, as distinctly laid down by King Charles IX., in his *ordonnance* of Moulins, in 1566, and by King Henry III., in his *ordonnance* of Fontainbleau, in 1586, he ordered, that in all the cities and towns of France where there was no hospital-general, such an asylum should be established without delay. That these hospitals should lodge and feed the poor, mendicants and invalids, natives of their jurisdiction, or who should have resided a year in it; as also all orphans and children born of mendicant parents. That the inmates should be taught some occupation, and on no account be allowed to go from one town to another. One-third of the value of their work was to be made over to them as an encouragement, and the administrators were strictly forbidden to refuse, under pretence of deficient funds, admittance to any one; the king charging himself with making good any deficiency. In

spite, however, of every exertion, mendicity was as prevalent as ever, and the more the means of relief were multiplied, the more the number of mendicants increased. *Ordonnance* after *ordonnance* was published with no avail in checking the evil. The intentions of Louis were not attended with any benefit, for a plain reason, his plans were proposed for providing relief for an evil already existing, without attempting to prevent that evil from arising. The attention of government was not called to a consideration of the state of the poor from feelings of charity for their state, but was forced into it by the scandalous disorders and outrages that were committed, to the annoyance of the respectable part of the community. Thus the Hospital-General was founded, it may be said, from fear lest disorder and anarchy should increase, not from the humanity which seeks to prevent the misfortunes that give rise to such disorders. The wretched beings it was designed to relieve were treated as prisoners. It was thought, that to confine them was to destroy the evil, while the ultimate and original causes of that evil, which were to be discovered only by an intimate acquaintance with the history of society, were neglected and misunderstood by the government. The establishment of general hospitals, then, was, like many other acts of Louis's administration, better calculated to strike the imagination of the public and of the world, than to accomplish any real benefit to society.*

* Les grandes villes du royaume voulurent imiter leur maître :

It was not the parliament of Paris alone that was obliged to pass laws to check mendicity; the evil existed equally in other towns. In 1662, for instance, the immense concourse of beggars in Rouen having given rise to a contagious disease, the parliament of that city was under the necessity of passing an *arrêt* ordering them all to quit Rouen within twenty-four hours, forbidding begging in the streets, and calling upon the different towns and villages of the country to maintain their own poor.

In Paris, when, from unforeseen circumstances or calamitous seasons, there was a deficiency of provisions, the government seldom failed to give assistance to the poorer classes of the people. The high price of the necessaries of life could seldom, then, be brought forward as a reason for the increase of mendicants in the capital. For example, when, in 1661, from deficient harvest, the price of bread rose to eight sous a-pound, the king purchased a large quantity of foreign grain, and caused it to be baked into bread in ovens constructed for the purpose in the Tuileries. This bread, named *Pain du Roi*, was sold to the people for two sous six deniers. In 1692, when, in like manner, the scarcity

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on réunit toutes les fondations pieuses; on éléva des edifices superbes; on nomma des administrateurs, des regisseurs, et le nombre des mendiants s'accrut. Toutes ces maisons surchargées de pauvres, de tout age, de tout sexe, ne purent soutenir les frais immenses qu'occasionnoient des régies commencées avec faste, et que l'on vouloit soutenir avec éclat.—*Les Moyens de Détruire la Mendicité en France*, &c. p. 83.

was great, the king caused 100,000 pounds of bread to be distributed daily, at the rate of two sous a-pound. The state charged itself with these extraordinary expenses, and it rarely happened, even when most embarrassed in a financial point of view, that it failed to maintain at a low price the bread destined for the use of the capital. But the system too much practised even in the present day in France, of making every thing subservient to the interests of the capital, may be stated as one of the principal causes of the constant concourse of idle persons to Paris. Should there be a scarcity in the country, it was necessary at all events that the capital should not suffer; it was natural, then, that the inhabitants of the provinces, suffering from want, and knowing that the inhabitants of Paris were enjoying plenty, should hasten as soon as possible to share in a bounty so unjustly monopolized.

In 1719, government, finding that all measures to get rid of mendicity were fruitless, and that bad treatment as well as good but served to increase it, proposed to transport mendicants to the colonies, where they might be forced to work for life, or for a certain term of life, without, however, inferring a *civil death.* Upon this head, however, parliament interfered. It had long been jealous of the authority of the *jurisdiction prevôtale,* and it feared, with justice, that such a law as this might give too great a compass to that power which was already exercised perhaps to an illegal extent. Transportation, therefore, was forbidden; but parliament

proposed no new remedy in its place. In 1720 it was proposed to form the poor into companies of twenty each, and send them to work at the *Ponts et Chaussées;* but they soon became an object of terror on the roads; and, in fine, after an expense of 6,000,000 livres in the course of three years as a trial, the hospitals refused any longer to receive them, the plans of government failed, and the mischief was found to be as serious as ever. The constant struggle between the mendicants for whom no work was provided, the hospitals, which refused to receive them, and the law, which threatened to punish them, seemed to the public to be at last terminated by the establishments of the *Dépôts de Mendicité.** Holding a medium between a prison and an hospital, it was expected that these institutions would succeed in correcting the evil. Long conferences and debates took place upon the laws that ought to direct their administration; and at last appeared the *ordonnance* of 1764, followed by the *arrêt* of council of 1767, which, with various ministerial instructions, forms the code of mendicity, which is still, in some degree, kept up. These *dépôts* were 18 in number in 1778, 21 in 1781, 27 in 1786, and 33 in 1792. When first proposed, they were looked upon as an almost certain means of relieving society from the scourge that had so

* *Second Rapport du Comité de Mendicité, imprimé par ordre de l'Assemblée Nationale,* p. 25.

long afflicted it; but experience soon showed that all such hopes were in vain. What these *dépôts* might have been under an enlightened administration, which would have also sought to find the source of the evil, it is not easy to say; but such as they were, they gave no promise of benefit. In many of them the inmates were forced to be idle, for no work was provided for them; in others, they were put to work that bore no relation to their age, their strength, or their habits. There existed in them a total inattention to moral laws, and the consequence was, that many persons left them in a much more wretched condition, in point of correct feeling, than when they entered them. Crowded upon one another in a confined space, the inmates were often ill-fed and ill-treated; vermin and disease appeared everywhere, and stupidity, immorality, and suffering, were so mingled together as to render these *dépôts* no better than nurseries for fostering the very evil which they were erected to destroy.* In its measures of benevolence, as well as of rigour, towards the poor, the cares of government were equally imperfect and defective. The

* Les pauvres, entassés dans des endroits trop circonscrits, mal nourris, mal vêtus, sont accablés de travail et de mauvais traitemens, quand ils ne fournissent pas leur tâche. Deux ou trois mille malheureux pressés les uns sur les autres, opprimés de leur misère, de leur haleine mortelle, de la vermine qui les ronge, d'un rage étouffée qui les suffoque, gémissent autant de

desire of alleviating misery and misfortune perhaps really existed; but without enlightened views as to the means of doing this efficiently, and, at the same time, under constant embarrassments from other matters pressing upon its attention, its projects were neither happily conceived nor properly executed. Unable to provide employment for the people, it had no resource but in heaping up in hospitals an importunate and false mendicity, or to arm the law with rigour, and imprison all such as annoyed society. In 1767, about 50,000 mendicants were arrested in the course of the year. Could these, which was scarcely possible, have been all confined in *dépôts de mendicité*, it would soon have been seen, that they only made way for others. Beggary was a profession which increased in profit as competitors were removed from the field. At this period of French history, the people were oppressed with taxes, industry was at a stand, nd no attempt was made to promote it. It was not a deficiency of charity amongst the wealthy that produced the daily-increasing misery, it was the injudicious manner in which that charity was

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fois qu'ils respirent. Plusieurs de nos dépôts sont l'image de l'Enfer."—Vid. *Moyens de Détruire la Mendicité, &c., Chalons-sur-Marne*, 1780, p. 50.

The 6th Report of the *Comité de Mendicité* gives a still more lamentable picture of these *dépôts*. It says, that since 1756, or for a period of 22 years, the number of individuals confined was 230,000, among whom the mortality was *one-fifth*, or 46,000, and the expense 29,700,000 livres.

administered; individual good might be consulted, but the public was forgotten. The fault, too, lay in the characters of the public authorities and administrations; asylums were opened on all sides, but they were a species of illusion to the poor, as their purpose and object were abused. If the government saw these abuses, they had not the power of preventing them; and as they became weaker, the administrators of the poor became more powerful, and often enriched themselves with the revenues which lay at their disposal. If some of them, more conscientious, made an attempt at improvement, it was done without judgment or discretion.

M. Necker, in his "Finances de la France," estimates the number of persons existing in the 33 dépôts of mendicity at between 6 and 7000. He says, also, that, at the period of his administration, a sensible progression towards improvement had taken place in the management of some of them, though many yet required great melioration.

But, whilst he makes this statement, he does not deny the necessity, though at the same time he points out the difficulty, almost the impossibility of then legislating on the subject of the poor-laws; and, in alluding to the various plans proposed by the numerous writers of the day, and the obstacles thrown by circumstances in the way of their accomplishment, he adds,—"Il est difficile de faire mouvoir avec justesse des ressorts trop multipliés, surtout lorsque ces ressorts ont un frottement continuel avec la grande roue générale."

The period of the Revolution was fast approaching, and it was to be dreaded that, in the multiplicity of plans of improvement, the new government, though perhaps conscientiously wishing the good of the country, might fail in securing it. Too many conflicting opinions had taken possession of the minds of men; and if by chance they concurred in the object to be desired, they were divided as to the means of attaining it. *Atéliers de Charité* had already, in some measure, been established. As far back as 1685, regulations were made concerning them; the *ordonnances* of 1700 and 1709 gave them a more definite form, and during the reign of Louis XVI. they were spread over the kingdom, although to no great extent. At the period of Necker's administration, the public called loudly for their farther establishment, and demanded that persons of both sexes should be admitted into them, to labour according to their strength, and be paid for that labour. But the minister objected to this system. The needy, he says, exist everywhere; but the *atéliers* cannot be multiplied in proportion. The occupations which demand neither education nor apprenticeship, which can be taken up and quitted at pleasure, have but a limited circle. Besides, if the work undertaken is destined for the general consumption of the community, whatever is manufactured in these houses is so much withdrawn from the free industry of the citizens. The government prior to the Revolution was fettered in its actions by having too universal an administration; its ju-

risdiction extended over the whole country, and the details of business were not sufficiently under its eye. This imperfection of system was only to be destroyed by the formation of what Necker terms secondary administrations. These, if once placed on a firm footing, and fairly consolidated, giving their full consideration to diminish the burden of imposts, would at last arrive at a knowledge of the real and exact resources and wants of each parish, and would in this way be able to distribute, in just proportion, assistance, labour, and encouragement.

In 1790, the National Assembly took up the subject, and appointed a committee to consider the means of extinguishing mendicity, at the head of which was M. de Liancourt. The first inquiry of this committee was into the productive condition of France, and how far the evil lay there which they were appointed to remedy. The disproportion of the population to the labour furnished to it was undoubtedly at this time the main cause of the indigence of the country. Agriculture was at a very low ebb. In spite of the improvements that had been, in a certain degree, advancing for some years before, it was so inferior to what it might and ought to have been, that the total of the agricultural productions of France, compared to those of England, was no more than 3 : 8; although in many provinces the culture of the land was more profitable than in England. For its immediate and necessary consumption, France was obliged to purchase to the value of 200,000,000

livres from other countries. The principal articles imported in 1787, and which should have been obtained within itself, were—metal, wood, resinous and bituminous matters, wax, grain of different sorts, vegetables, fruits, butter, cheese, oil, brandy, gin, cattle, horses, leather, hides, wool, silk, lint, flax, &c.

In raw produce to the value of	138,194,000 livres.
In manufactured produce,	66,086,000
	204,284,000

without including tobacco, for which 9,000,000 livres were annually paid in America, and which could have been equally well raised in France. From a new system of laws, therefore, adapted to encourage agriculture, was the diminution of poverty and misery to be expected. The taxes being equalized, and arbitrary impositions and exemptions done away with, which had the effect of confining activity and industry to large towns, the population of the country would be increased; the inhabitants would be more equally scattered over its surface, and a great proportion of the four or five millions then in misery restored to comfort and independence. The new impulse given to France would soon show its beneficial influence by an increase of activity, an augmentation in the mass of the sources of industry, an improvement in morals, a destruction of poverty in its very foundations. During

the first movements of the French Revolution; the benefits that were the theme of discussion might have been expected to be realized, as the sentiments and opinions of the first movers of that great political event were sound and enlightened. The principle so long neglected or misunderstood seemed at last to be acknowledged, that the duty of relieving the poor is only performed when the relief given bears reference to general utility, and not to individual distress; and that charity without the condition of labour is but a premium for laziness. The axiom adopted by the commission as the basis of a just legislation of the poor was, that *every person assisted by the nation, and maintained at its charge, should be in a situation less comfortable and easy than if he had no need of aid, and could subsist by his own resources.**

The report of the Committee of Mendicity, published by order of the National Assembly, the principal subject of which is the manner in which assistance to the poor should be distributed over the country, recommended that all the funds belonging to hospitals and houses of charity should be united into one mass, and placed in the hands of the nation. These funds, originally belonging to the poor, but of which the proper purposes had, from abuse and otherwise, been so much perverted, were

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* *Vid.* Premier Rapport du Comité de Mendicité, par M. de la Rochefoucauld-Liancourt, p. 8, *et seq.*

to form a general *fonds de secours*, to be distributed throughout the different departments for the maintenance of the indigent.

Amongst the various plans brought forward by individuals, it was at one time proposed to establish a general tax for the maintenance of the poor. This idea, however, was soon given up. In the first place, the National Assembly had declared its intention of taking the charge of that maintenance on itself; and the committee, in the next place, terrified, as it well might be, at the unfortunate and ruinous consequences of such a tax in England, seconded all the objections that were started to it, and forcibly pointed out its mischiefs and inconveniences. Were this tax equally partitioned over the country, its most evident effect would be, to make the country tributary to the wants of the towns, and industry tributary to idleness. If unequally, but proportionably distributed, it might perhaps be more just in one respect, but would then be impolitic, as it would render the value of property unequal. Besides the example of England, alone sufficient to prevent the establishment of such a system, a proof of its impolicy existed in France itself. In the province of French Flanders, it had long been the habit to maintain the poor in their own parishes.* The method adopted of disposing of this maintenance by public sale showed

* Dans ces villages où la population est immense, on a trouvé le moyen d'arreter la mendicité en obligeant chaque

that these parishes knew how to economize their charity; but, notwithstanding this, the tax levied in many of them,—and it had no connexion with the hospital-establishments,—was as high as four livres an acre. In looking over the table of the proportion of the poor in the different departments of France, as furnished to the commission by the local authorities, this interesting fact presents itself, that only two departments in the kingdom exhibited so high a proportion of poor as the department *du Nord*, (*Flandre Française*,) and not one higher.*

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paroisse de nourrir ses pauvres, et voici le moyen simple qu'on y emploie:—

Le jour de la S. Jean on assemble dans l'église tous les pauvres qui sont à la charge de la paroisse—hommes, femmes, enfans, vieillards; on les appelle tous, on les fait monter l'un après l'autre sur une pierre destinée à cet usage, et qui se trouve placée dans la cimetière. On fait alors une espece de vente au rabais, c'est-à-dire, que celui qui demande le moins pour la pension du pauvre exposé à l'encan se charge de le loger et de le nourrir pour le prix convenu. On prend ordinairement un enfant à 75 livres, un vieillard à 120 livres; les jeunes gens de dix-sept à dix-huit ans, bien constitués, sont quelquefois pris pour très-peu de chose; on évalue le travail qu'ils peuvent faire. La communauté ne se contente pas de payer la pension du pauvre qui est à sa charge, elle lui fournit encore à-peu-près un louis-d'or chaque année pour le linge et les habits.

Pour trouver les fonds nécessaires à la subsistence des pauvres, independamment des quêtes, tous les propriétaires se cotisent; on paie environ 30 sols par arpent de terre; personne n'est exempte. On divine bien que cette taxe varie suivant les circonstances et les besoins de la communauté. Vid. *Mem. de M. l'Abbé Montlinot.*

* *Vid.* Tables attached to the reports of the *Comité de Mendicité.*

This circumstance corroborates all that has been said respecting the bad effects of the tax in England, and also what has been stated by Dr Chalmers of the increase of paupers in those parts of Scotland where a similar tax has been levied.

To another opinion then started, that each department should maintain its own poor, objections also were raised. It was argued, that by this plan the burden was almost sure to fall heaviest on those districts that could afford it least; for the poorest country being that in which most assistance is necessary, it is at the same time that in which resources are fewest. There would be in consequence either an insufficient assistance, or a charge insupportable by the citizens. The plan then recommended by the commission was, that funds should be distributed by government to the different departments. That the population, contribution, and extent, which serve as the basis of the representative system of each department, should serve in like manner for the regulation of the assistance it should receive from the nation. The proportion of active citizens to the gross population was to determine the extent of aid required; for it cannot, *ceteris paribus*, be denied, that that department which contains the greatest proportion of active citizens is that in which the assistance should be given to the fewest individuals.

The commission proposed, that in each department there should be a council composed of four members, and in every district one of two members

to administer the funds granted by government. That every person not paying any contribution should be placed on the poor's list, and that a second list should be formed to receive the names of such persons as contribute only a day or two's work, and who are likely to stand in need of occasional assistance. The sums to be distributed to each department were to be calculated according to the price of daily labour; the highest, however, never to exceed 20 and the lowest 16 sous.

The miserable state of their administration previous to the Revolution certainly warranted the commission to a certain degree in recommending the alienation of hospital-possessions; but the idea of this alienation was not new. Such a measure was regarded as necessary by the Chancellor d'Aguesseau; and as far back as the period of the *ordonnances* of Moulins and Blois, the Chancellor L'Hôpital also seemed to incline towards it. The Chancellor d'Aguesseau, in a letter written in answer to the remonstrances of the parliament of Grenoble, upon the proposal of passing such an edict, in 1749, speaks in the following terms:— "Personne n'ignore que le revenu des biens-fonds d'hôpitaux est consommé en grande partie, et quelquefois absorbé entièrement, par les réparations et les autres charges; à quoi il faut ajouter la difficulté d'affermer ou louer ces biens à leur juste valeur, l'insolvabilité des fermiers et des locataires, les poursuites que l'on est obligé de faire contre eux, les procès qu'il faut soutenir pour les droits depen-

dans de ces biens. Les meilleurs administrateurs ne sont pas toujours capables d'entrer dans les détails que ces sortes d'objets exigent nécessairement, ou ils ne sont pas en état d'y vaquer. L'expérience a fait voir que les biens-fonds d'hôpitaux diminuent presque toujours de valeur, et la depense journalière d'un hôpital demande un revenu qui soit plus facile à perçevoir.

" Quant aux rentes sur les particuliers, elles engagent tres-souvent dans des discussions fort onéreuses, et c'est toujours avec regret que l'on voit des administrateurs d'hôpitaux occupés à suivre dans les tribunaux des saisies-réelles, des decrets, ou des subhastations, des ordres, et d'autres procédures semblables; ce qui les détourne au moins de l'attention continuelle qu'exige l'administration intérieure d'un hôpital, et fait quelquefois consommer le bien des pauvres en frais de justice."

If the alienation of hospital-possessions was not completed before the Revolution, hospitals at least were prevented from acquiring more of the same description. When the National Assembly, in July, 1790, decreed the alienation of the property of the crown and of the clergy, it postponed, for a time, that of hospital-property; and even afterwards, when the commission, in its report, recommended this alienation, it was not at once adopted. It seemed to be a feeling of the injustice of such a measure, that put off its adoption. If the government took possession of the capital resulting from the sale, the poor would to a certainty suffer. The state, taking the enormous expense of the maintenance of hospitals upon

itself, would be forced to impose new taxes; and the probability is, that the poor would at first be neglected, and afterwards altogether forgotten. As late as May, 1793, a suspension of the sale, which had been at last agreed to, was again passed; but, finally, in July, 1794, the Convention decreed that all hospital-possessions should be deemed national property, and be sold conformably to the laws respecting national domains. A more particular account of the extent of this alienation and of its effects has already been given at the commencement of the work, and it will be unnecessary to enlarge more upon the subject in this place.

Whilst the commission of mendicity was engaged in its inquiries, several laws and ordonnances were passed respecting mendicity. One, dated the 13th June, 1790, ordered all mendicants to retire to their own *communes*. They were to receive three sous a league, and a passport indicating a certain route, which they could not quit without the certainty of being arrested by the gendarmerie. This law was open to abuses that the most vigilant attention could not check. Local authorities were glad to get rid of their idle inhabitants at so cheap a rate; and the kingdom, in consequence, soon swarmed with mendicants wandering from place to place under false pretences, with fictitious passports, and often committing every species of atrocity. On the 10th of September of the same year, letters-patent were passed, establishing *Ateliers de Secours* in the capital and departments. These were to be of two kinds; in the one the workmen were to be paid by

the piece; in the other, where the inmates were older and feebler, by the day. The price of work was to be always maintained at a certain proportion below the current price of the district. On the 19th December, a law was passed, granting a sum of 15 millions of livres for the establishment of these *ateliers*; but the words of the preamble would seem to indicate, that this was only a temporary arrangement, compelled by the momentary want of work. Of these 15 millions, 6,640,000 were to be divided among the 83 departments, at the rate; thus, of 80,000 livres each; 40,000 to be given on the 10th January, 20,000 on the 10th February, and 20,000 on the 10th of March. The different administrators of departments were called upon to determine on the works to be undertaken for the employment of the poor; and having done so, to inform the minister of finance, who, upon the opinion of the assembly, was to fix how the remaining 8,360,000 livres were to be partitioned. These *ateliers* employed the men in labouring the ground, the women and children in spinning.

In the meantime, the committee of mendicity did not relax in its labours, and continued to lay its plans before the National Assembly. The condition of persons whose lives were altogether spent in the country more particularly fixed their attention in the 4th report. In the distribution of public assistance, this class of persons had always been in a measure forgotten, and the funds and means of relief had been in most cases concentrated in large

towns.* In malady they were treated by ignorant persons, and hence the mortality amongst them had always been greater than it ought to have been, and the consequences of disease more destructive and complicated. Amongst the sick who have a claim for public assistance, there are some who, without being in a state to pay for medical treatment, still have a house and family. This is the case with the inhabitants of the country; and the true principles of benevolence, true policy, and, indeed, true economy, demand that they should be assisted at their own homes, where they may receive the attentions of their families. Such a system of assistance will have the effect of serving several valuable interests. In the first place, the number of hospitals may be diminished, the ties of family-affection are strengthened, personal pride and independence preserved, foresight and energy developed. For the formation of these *secours à domicile*, according to the project brought forward by the commission, it was proposed to establish, in the different cantons of the country, physicians and surgeons to treat the sick gratuitously at their own homes. Every year the municipality was to give to them a statement of the number and condition of the poor of the canton. These physicians and surgeons were to receive 500 *livres* a-year; their duty was to attend the sick of all descriptions, to look after the health of foundlings

* It frequently happened, that the inhabitants of villages which were entirely hospital-property were excluded from the benefits of the charitable establishments, to the pecuniary resources of which their labour contributed.

and their nurses, to inoculate children. In severe maladies, they were to call upon other physicians for advice; and annually were to give up to the director of their district, a series of remarks on the character of the climate, the diseases, the method of treatment, and a comparison of the births, marriages, and deaths. In towns it was proposed to establish a similar system instead of hospitals. The project set forth, that there should be established for the indigent sick, a gratuitous treatment. Towns with a population below 4000 souls were to be included in the country in general. Those, with a population between 4 and 8000, were to have one physician or surgeon for the poor. In larger towns, the medical officers were to be named by *arrondissement* or quarter. The *titre* 3 of the *projet* concerns the aged and infirm. These may receive pecuniary assistance in their own homes, when they have attained the age of 60, and may be received into the public hospices at the age of 70. The assistance *à domicile* was to be graduated according to the extent of failure in the faculties and bodily powers. The total amount of pension was not to exceed 120 livres a-year; but this was, in general, to be rated in reference to the value of daily labour. Every child refusing, in ordinary circumstances, to aliment his parents, was to be deprived of the rights of citizenship, and his name to be erased from the civic lists. The *titre* 4 of the project is taken up with the poor in general who are not afflicted with infirmities. Upon the question, how assistance was to be administered to them, there was considerable

discussion. It was deemed impossible, or at least highly improper, to give them any relief without combining labour along with it. The commission had adopted it as a principle, that the surest, best, and, indeed, it may be said, the only means of destroying mendicity is by multiplying labour. The liberal principles that now prevailed in France, and which had unfettered the minds of its rulers from the superstitious influence of the church of Rome, allowed them to see at once one of the causes that has always produced, or assisted in producing, much of the poverty and idleness of Catholic countries. Work was not likely to fail in such a kingdom as France; but, even were it more abundant than it is, the days taken up in the celebration of *fêtes* destroy, in a great measure, the chances of realizing a tolerable existence, and serve to encourage idleness and debauchery. The commission, therefore, having taken up such a view of the matter, proposed the suppression of a very considerable number of these holidays. In the capital they abstract twenty,—in other dioceses a greater number of days from labour. But the evil of the Popish calendar in this respect is not merely the loss resulting from want of occupation, but the extra expense brought, in various ways, upon the working classes. If the working population of France be calculated at 17,000,000, and the wages of each at 10 sous a-day,—if, for extra expenses of dress, and money spent in public-houses in the different holidays of the church, 7 sous additional be allowed,—the suppression of nineteen festivals would produce

a benefit of no less than 274,550,000 livres. By the project of the commission, accordingly, all fêtes, except those of the Fête-Dieu, the Ascension, All Saints, and Noël, were shifted to Sunday.*

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* The following is a table of the fête-days in Paris, which it was proposed to retain, or to shift to Sundays :—*

	To Preserve.	To defer to Sundays.
La Circoncision,		1
Sainte-Genevieve,		1
L'Epiphanie,		1
La Purification,		1
L'Annonciation,		1
Les deux jours de Fête du Lendemain et Sur-lendemain de Paques,		2
Les deux jours après la Pentecôte,		2
L'Ascension,	1	
La Fête-Dieu,	1	
Saint Jean,		1
Saint Pierre,		1
L'Assomption,		1
Saint-Louis,		
La Nativité,		1
Saint Denis,		1
La Toussaint,	1	
La Conception,		1
Noël,	1	
Les deux Fêtes après Noël,		2
Les deux Fêtes de Paroisse et de Métier pour une seulement,		1
	4	19
Total,	23	

* *Vid.* Quatrième Rapport du Comité de Mendicité, p. 92.

The project went on to recommend, that there should be no distribution of bread or money, either from private houses or public institutions; that every family inscribed in the poor's lists should receive for each child, from its fourth till its tenth year of age, the same sum as that granted for foundlings. For these various purposes, and to maintain the *Atéliers de Secours*, funds, not exceeding the amount of 60,000 livres, were to be given to each department,—the partition to be made only with the authority of the king. In arranging the manner in which assistance of various sorts should be distributed, it became necessary to fix on an invariable footing the right any pauper had to receive relief from his *domicile;* or, in other words, and to make use of the French term, it was necessary to determine his *domicile de secours.* If the state took entirely upon itself to furnish and distribute funds for the poor, the condition of a domicile would not be particularly necessary; for, as it would not affect the public treasury in what place the assistance was given, it would be of little consequence, except as a branch of the general police of the country, where any pauper resided or received aid. If the state contributed nothing to the maintenance of the poor, and left each municipality and parish to maintain its own, the condition of domicile would then require to be rigorously defined. England is an instance of the latter, and the vicious system of domicile adopted in consequence produces

the greatest mischief. It is constantly engaging parishes in troublesome lawsuits; which, for ascertaining nothing more than the residence of one wretched pauper, lead to an expense that might have maintained the whole poor of the parish for a year.

The birth-place of a man is, of course, his natural *domicile de secours*; but a man may acquire the right of domicile in any other municipality by a residence of a certain length of time without receiving any assistance as a pauper. This period the committee proposed to fix at two years. Any person having been domiciled in one municipality, and removing to another, and there acquiring the right of domicile, must lose his right in the former. The right of domicile, however, in his birth-place was to be retained for the space of twenty years after attaining majority. Every soldier, after six years' service with good behaviour, was to have the liberty of choosing his domicile in any part of the country. Any person attacked with sudden infirmity might be received into the asylum of the department in which he was at the time, though not domiciliated there. In the decree of the National Convention, dated the 24th *Vendemiaire*, an. 2, the conditions of domicile are more decidedly laid down. They differ very slightly from those proposed by the commission, and are generally in force in the present day. The principal articles are,—

1. Le Domicile de Secours est le lieu où l'homme

nécessairement a droit aux secours publics.

2. Le lieu de la naissance est le lieu naturel du domicile de secours.
3. Le lieu de la naissance pour les enfans est le domicile habituel de la mère au moment où ils sont nés.
4. Pour acquérir le domicile de secours, il faut un séjour d'un an dans une commune.
5. Le séjour ne comptera pour l'avénir, que du jour de l'inscription au greffe de la municipalité.
7. Jusqu'à l'âge de 21 ans, tout citoyen pourra réclamer, sans formalité, le droit de domicile dans le lieu de sa naissance.
8. Après l'âge de 21 ans, il sera astreint à un séjour de six mois, avant d'obtenir le droit de domicile, et à se conformer aux formes prescrites aux articles iv., v., et vi.
9. Celui qui quittera son domicile pour en acquérir un second sera tenu aux mêmes formalités que pour le premier.
10. Il en sera de même pour celui qui, après avoir quitté un domicile, voudra y revenir.
11. Nul ne pourra exercer en même temps dans deux communes le droit de domicile de secours.
13. Ceux qui se marieront dans une commune, et qui l'habiteront pendant six mois, acquerront le droit de domicile de secours.

The *Domicile de Secours* here spoken of, must not be confounded with the *Domicile de l'Etat Civil;* the principal articles of which, according to the *Code Civil*, are as follows:—

102. Le Domicile de tout Français, quant à l'exercise de ses droits civils, est au lieu où il a son principal établissement.

103. Le changement de domicile s'opérera par le fait d'une habitation réelle dans un autre lieu, joint à l'intention d'y fixer son principal établissement.

106. Le citoyen appelé à une fonction publique temporaire ou révocable conservera le domicile qu'il avait auparavant, s'il n'a pas manifesté d'intention contraire.

107. L'acceptation de fonctions conferées à vie emportera translation immediate du domicile du fonctionnaire dans le lieu où il doit exercer ses fonctions.

109. Les majeurs qui servent ou qui travaillent habituellement chez autrui, auront le même domicile que la personne qu'ils servent ou chez laquelle ils travaillent, lorsqu'ils demeureront avec elle dans la même maison.

The Committee of Mendicity, in the report already so largely quoted, also proposed to endeavour, in conjunction with the Committees of Finance and Agriculture, to establish in each department, a

caisse d'epargnes, or, in other words, a saving bank, and species of life insurance-office. In the prospect of this, they consulted the Academy of Sciences on the accuracy of the calculations they had made for the purpose, and received a favourable report from M. M. Vandermonde, Condorcet, and de la Place.

After having considered the manner in which the distribution of charity should be made, the next object of the committee was to arrange upon what footing it should be placed in point of expense; and to do this, it was necessary to make particular inquiries into the probable proportion of the poor of the kingdom. At the period of the French Revolution, it was supposed that the poor of England, independent of such as existed in the hospitals, formed about one-twentieth, or rather more, of the total population of the country, or were about 38 to the square league.* Some authors, in speaking of

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* Some authors have asserted, but without any appearance of foundation, that out of the total population of Europe, valued at 178 millions, there are 17 millions of mendicants. They have also rated the proportion

In Denmark, . . .	3	in 100.
In Holland, ...	14	
In England, . . .	16	

In the year 1801, it would appear, that in a population of 250,000 souls in Vienna, there were 37,552 paupers. At present the population is valued at 210,198 inhabitants, of whom 20,581 are paupers. Berlin, with a population of 188,485

France, in contradistinction to England, went so far as to estimate the proportion of the poor as low as one-fiftieth, one-hundredth, and even one-two-hundredth of the total population of France,—an opinion totally destitute of all foundation. The commissioners, to ascertain as nearly as possible the real proportion, applied to the authorities of the different departments for information on the subject. They did so, however, at an unfortunate time, when misery, distress, idleness, and want of public confidence, prevailed throughout the country, and when, in consequence, an exaggerated statement was likely to be received,—exaggerated, not, perhaps, for the actual state of the times, but for what it ought to be in ordinary times of national prosperity. According to the information received, the following are the proportions between the population, number of poor, and their different classes, calculated for the whole realm, with the exception of Paris and Corsica:—

Population of 81 departments,	26,288,887

souls, is said to contain 12,000 paupers. When the French administration organized in Rome the system of *secours à domicile*, the total indigent population amounted to 15,130 in 120,000 inhabitants. In Hamburg, in 1789, the proportion of paupers to the total population was, : : 1 : 13; in 1817, this proportion was so much reduced, that in 107,000 inhabitants, there were only 2722 paupers registered, 2000 children in gratis schools, and 900 orphans.—Vid. *Ouvrage de M. Degerando, &c.*

Number of hearths, . .	5,453,873
Number of individuals not paying taxes, or who only pay one or two days' work, ...	2,739,384
Individuals that have need of assistance, ...	3,207,073
Children of the poor under 14 years of age, on the total number of poor,	1,886,935
Number of aged and infirm on the total of the poor, . . .	804,775
Paupers in a state of health, .	515,363
Sick upon the total number of the poor,	42,519

That this is an exaggerated calculation there can be no doubt, for it makes the proportion of the poor as high as from one-eighth to one-ninth, which, bad as the state of the country was, there was no reason for supposing to be the truth. In fact, the returns made were founded upon the actual wants of the year, and were not to be taken as giving an idea of the real state of the pauper-population, which, in ordinary years, the committee, from the additional inquiries it made, was led to rate at one-twentieth to one-twenty-fifth. This proportion included those individuals inhabiting hospitals and houses of charity. In fixing the amount of funds to be allotted for the maintenance of the poor of France, it was supposed a fair calculation to reckon, that, annually, 1,000,000 individuals would stand in need of assistance; which number was divisible into two classes of persons, the one requiring con-

stant, the other only temporary relief. The former of these classes was supposed to consist of 500,000 individuals, the latter of a like number; and the number of sick upon the two united was rated at 50,000, or about one-twentieth. A sum of 5 millions, or about 60,000 livres, for each department, was accounted as sufficient to meet the expense of maintaining the 500,000 who required only temporary relief, at the rate of three months in the year. To ascertain the probable expense of maintaining the habitual poor, the commissioners pushed their inquiries farther into the history of other nations, and into the circumstances connected with the administration of charity in them. From the information they obtained, both in France and elsewhere, they were induced to think, that from 55 to 60 *livres* for each individual was a full allowance, including in this average persons of every description and of every age.

In England it would appear, that at that period the expense of a family, consisting of husband, wife, and four children, was rated at 586 *livres*, or below 100 *livres* a-head; in Scotland it was rated at 369, or about 60 a-head; and in France, for a family of husband, wife, and three children, at 435, or from 80 to 90 *livres* a-head. In Bohemia, a husband, wife, and three children, in the country, could be maintained at 189 *livres*, or 38 each; in town, at 378, or 76 each. But if in France, in some departments and districts, the average rate of maintenance was above 60 francs a-head, in others it was much

less; in some parishes, 15, 12, 7, 6, and even 5 *livres* a-year have been found sufficient to relieve the poor. Sixty livres, then, might be taken as a full average. Going upon the information received from various quarters, the committee proposed the following sums for the maintenance of the poor throughout the kingdom:—

For the sick, the number of which might be stated at 50,000, and the cost at from 12 to 15 sous a-day, or from 200 to 250 livres a-year,	12,000,000
For the 500,000 habitual poor, including children, aged and infirm persons, at 60 livres a-head, . . .	27,500,000
For the temporary poor, at the rate of 60,000 livres for each department,	5,000,000
For suppression of begging and maintenance of houses of correction, .	3,000,000
Fund for extraordinary and administrative expenses, . . .	4,000,000
	51,500,000

The commissioners, in recommending their project, state the value of the poor's-funds previous to the Revolution as follows: The total revenue of the hospitals of the realm, from authentic documents, appeared to be from 30 to 32 millions;*

* The inquiries of the *Comité de Mendicité* enabled them to ascertain the existence of 2185 hospitals, exclusive of private en-

that portion of the goods of the clergy destined for charitable purposes, 6,000,000; the expense of *Depôts de Mendicité* and *Atéliers de Charité*, from 5 to 6,000,000; and finally there were the revenues belonging to the ancient *Maladreries*, *Aumoneries*, and *Ordres Hospitaliers*, the value of which is not mentioned. The nation then would have little to add to make up the sum of 50 millions; and, if it had, that could be raised by a tax on births, successions, and marriages.

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dowments, in France at the period of the Revolution. Of these 1438 declared their revenue to have originally been 20,874,664 livres, reduced by the decrees of the National Assembly to 13,987,787. The others did not give an account of their revenues; but the *Comité* was enabled to approximate to them by their declaration in 1764. At that time 40 hospitals, belonging to the towns of Metz, Moulins, Troies, Narbonne, Aix Chartres, Nismes, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Montpellier, Montauban, Angers, Valenciennes, Strasbourg, Lyons, Bayonne, Pau, and Clermont-Ferrand, possessed among them a revenue of 2,995,000 livres.

M. de Pastoret says, that the hospitals of Paris enjoyed a patrimonial revenue of 3,408,600 livres at the epoch of the Revolution:—"Savoir: loyers de maisons, 1,092,000 livres; fermage de biens ruraux, y compris les bois, 284,000; rentes sur l'état 1,950,000; rentes sur particuliers, 23,000; rentes sur des corporations qui ont été supprimées, 4600; cens et redevances hors de Paris 30,000; et droits féodaux dans Paris, 25,000 livres." In addition to these sources of revenue, they raised, by a right of duty on wine, oil, wood, charcoal, salt butter, hay, eggs, and similar articles, a sum which, in the space of 12 years, amounted to 12,094,683 livres, and which was still farther increased by other privileges.

In June, 1792, the Legislative Assembly heard the detailed report of its committee. The substance has been above given. To enter farther into the details of a system which in some points promised well, but which the anarchy that followed rendered useless, would be unnecessary; but, in every respect, fruitless as they were, the labours of the committees of Mendicity and *Secours Publics* merited the gratitude of the country. In their researches after the truth, they spared neither time nor pains, and they hazarded no opinion till they had made themselves thoroughly acquainted with the state of the question in other countries. It was on the faults and merits of other existing systems, that they founded their ideas contained in the report presented to the assembly. But the plans they advised met the same fate as many other plans brought forward at the time for the advancement of public instruction, agriculture, and other national matters.

The government, which at the epoch the committees were first created, was willing and anxious to make improvements, was no longer what it then was. Its members, as well as its spirit, had changed; and the meliorations proposed for bettering the state of the poor remained as speculative theories, interesting to consult, but which it was impossible, or, it might rather be said, contrary to the views of the government, to put into effect. A torrent of political events swept away both projects and projectors; alike the institutions

that were proposed and the institutions that had long existed.

Throughout the whole of their inquiries the committee anxiously endeavoured to avoid any thing that might bear the least resemblance to the English system of poor-laws. But, indeed, the rock was too apparent for them to split upon it; and, having its dangers in view, they were enabled to avoid them. What was at first a call upon private and individual charity has gradually become in England a legal contribution, which now presses upon one class, and destroys the energies and independence of another. When Henry VIII. suppressed the monasteries and charitable houses, he undoubtedly did his kingdom a great service, and from that period industry must date its commencement; but the first effect of the suppression was an increase of poverty and mendicity. The number of paupers was not diminished, while the funds, which had hitherto supported them, were all usurped by the king, and distributed among his favourites, to lay the foundation of the immense private possessions of the present day. How considerable these funds were, and how many poor their alienation must have thrown upon the community, may be judged of from the fact, that the revenue of the religious institutions abolished by Henry amounted to £273,000 of that period, equal to about £5,000,000 of present money. The Abbey of St Albans alone possessed an income of £2500, which may be valued now at £200,000. The poor were thus de-

prived of the relief they had been accustomed to look to, and it was found that the voluntary contributions of the community were insufficient to maintain them. In consequence, Edward VI., in 1552, ordered, that, on a certain Sunday each year, the collector of the parish should fix the sum he might deem each person capable of paying the ensuing year for the support of the poor; and if, after two summonses, that was not paid, the person was to be taken before the bishop of the diocese, who was to exert his influence in inducing him to do it. By a statute of Elizabeth, any person refusing to pay his contribution was to be taken before the justices of peace, and, upon farther refusal, to be imprisoned. Finally, in 1572 and 1592, the contribution took the character it at present bears; since which time it has gone on gradually increasing.

In the year 1680, the poor's-tax of England amounted to £665,370; in 1764 to £1,200,000; in 1773 to £3,000,000; in 1822 to £6,358,702. Had a similar tax to a similar amount been levied in France, and gone on increasing in a like progression, its ruinous consequences may be easily conceived. The population of France is now about 32 millions, and a tax proportional to that of England would have amounted to about 450 millions of francs, or not far short of half the annual revenue of the kingdom.

The English system has invested the poor with a positive legal right. They have no poverty to dread; idleness, improvidence, and disorder, are

encouraged; economy and foresight checked; there exists on this head no feeling of shame, no sentiment of gratitude, no moral restraint. From the same cause the contributors of this tax have lost the sentiment of charity towards their less fortunate brethren,—a moral virtue has been converted into a forced retribution, and what might have been the result of humanity is now accounted a hardship and oppression. The *Comité de Secours Publics*, in its memorial, read to the Legislative Assembly in June 1792, express themselves on the poor's-laws of England in the following terms: It does not appear that the superabundance of relief in England has either tended to the profit of humanity, or delivered the country from beggars. Such is the depth of the wound, such is the progress of the evil, that it has become impossible to apply a remedy to it. The current of events must increase the mischief, and it cannot be foreseen when its progress may be checked. In many provinces it has injured industry. On one side, parishes have used every vain pretext to refuse receiving the poor of neighhouring parishes, or their inhabitants, who might one day become poor, and be at their charge; whilst, on the other side, they use every sort of chicanery to throw their own poor upon other parishes. With a people our seniors in liberty, liberty has been unworthily violated, and has been replaced by the most insupportable restraint. A laborious and honest artizan is no longer permitted to choose his abode, or change it at pleasure, that he may carry his talents where he might hope they would be

usefully employed. He is repulsed on all sides. Ambiguous and ill-defined laws have given rise to interminable processes; and many parishes have frequently spent more money in driving the poor away than it would have cost them to support them. M. Degerando, in his work entitled *Le Visiteur du Pauvre*, says justly, the system instituted to fulfil one of the most touching vocations, to procure the comfort of humanity, has become a source of vexation and abuse:—"Comment s'est on laissé entrainer à une semblable erreur dans un pays où, sous tant d'autres rapports, l'administration s'est entièrement confiée à l'industrie ou au zèle des particuliers, et où elle y a en effet trouvé tant de ressources?"

As the troubles of France increased, and as the government got into the hands of men without either principle or judgment, there was less chance of any beneficial system for the relief of the poor being formed. Decrees, however, continued to be every now and then passed. On the 18th of June, the National Convention ordered the establishment in each department of a *Maison de Secours* for the poor of both sexes deprived of their sight or of the use of their limbs. The Committees of Instruction and of *Secours Publics* were charged with the task of finding the best method of establishing them; but this, like many other decrees of the period, existed in the *Bulletin des Lois*, and went no farther. It might be deemed necessary and politic to appear to do something, but how the new laws were exe-

cuted was seldom a matter of thought; it was accounted sufficient to give orders that they should be publicly advertised in the different departments. In a few great cities the decrees of the Convention might be partially put in practice, but the great mass of the community felt not their benefit. No fixed plan was formed for the maintenance of the poor,—a fact sufficiently attested by the various provisional acts which appeared every now and then, as necessity forced the legislature to direct for a moment its attention towards the subject. Thus at one time a decree is passed, putting a million at the command of the minister to maintain the depôts of mendicity in the republic for one year; at another time, 500,000 francs are put at his disposal, to assist provisionally the poor and indigent citizens. The committee *de Secours* was no longer what it once was, composed of conscientious and enlightened men; yet to this body was given the charge of putting the intentions of government into execution. This was merely shifting the burden from the shoulders of one to the other. No benefit was to be looked for at a period when every tie, moral and religious, was torn asunder, and when the possessors of power struggled with each other who was to gain the sole seat of an authority that they almost all equally disgraced. The miserable affectation of benevolence that pervaded the speeches of the members of the Convention could not veil from the world the want of humanity in their hearts. Benevolence towards the poor was the cant of the day; and when

Robespierre apostrophized the *pauvre peuple,—peuple vertueux!* the mockery that lurked in the words might have created a smile, if the time and the person had allowed any feeling to arise but indignation. This was the dark period of the history of France; the destruction which, at the commencement of the Revolution, fell only upon what was useless, now fell equally upon what was best in the state, and every institution of an enlightened character was soon destroyed. Yet on every side humanity and charity were lauded to the skies, the legislature arrogated the possession of every virtue, and liberty was held out as the birthright of every one! If laws were made that merited any praise, they remained without execution, and nothing could present a more singular contrast, than the state of the *Bulletin des Lois* and the state of the country, as regarded the laws there contained.

During the year 1793, several decrees were passed to check the mendicity that still prevailed in France; one of the most remarkable of these, that of the 24th *Vendemiaire*, (15th October,) aimed at its general abolition. The provisions of this law remained in force, and were promulgated through the different departments as late as 1801; they were modified by the *Code Penal.* Notwithstanding this, they were never in any degree executed, and the law in this respect was like many other laws of the time. Its substance was as follows:—Any person detected in giving any species of alms to a beggar was to be punished. Every person found begging

in the streets or public roads was to be immediately arrested by the *gendarmerie*, or national guard, and conducted to the justice of the peace of the canton. If, upon examination, he was found to be domiciliated in any part of the country, he was to be sent thither with a passport; if not, he was to be placed in a *Maison de Repression*. Every mendicant, not a native of France, was to be conducted to the frontiers, and was to receive three *sous* a league as far as the first village beyond them. Children of mendicants were to be separated from their parents, and if not of an age to work, were to be ranked with deserted children, and treated accordingly: they were to be restored to their parents only if these had been set at liberty for good conduct, and been domiciled a year in the municipality. A *Maison de Repression* was, as far as possible, to be established at the capital of each department, and beyond the walls of the town. Every mendicant forwarded to his domicile, and again found begging, was to be condemned to one year's reclusion in this house; for another offence two years. Any citizen, however, might obtain the liberty of a prisoner, upon placing 100 francs in the hands of the receiver of the district, to be forfeited if the crime was again repeated. All mendicants who had no domicile, or who behaved rudely, insolently, or in a threatening manner, were at once to be condemned to a year's confinement. The depôts of mendicity were to be suppressed, or, if their situation was good, they were to be converted into *Mai-*

sons de Repression. The mendicants in these depôts at the time were to be sent to their domicile with 3 sous a league. The administrations of departments were to have the superintendence of these houses of repression, and were to name a responsible director to reside in the establishment, and who was to receive a salary not exceeding 2400 *livres.* A committee of three members, changeable every three months, was to be appointed to look more closely into the affairs of each house. The inmates were to be forced to work according to their age, strength, and sex; two-thirds of the sum their labour might realize went to assist in their maintenance; the half of the other third was to be paid to them once every *décade,* and the remainder when they were set at liberty. These houses were also to receive persons condemned to confinement by judgments of the tribunals of correctional police.

Every domiciliated mendicant was to be condemned to transportation when arrested the third time; every other mendicant for the second offence. Previous to being transported, the individual was to be confined in the prison of the district till judgment might be pronounced on him by a tribunal. The period of transportation could not be less than eight years, and could only be inflicted on persons above 18, and below 60 years of age: the period might be shortened or prolonged according to the individual's behaviour. Any mendicant under 18 years of age condemned to transportation was to remain in confinement till he had attained that

age, when the punishment might be lawfully put in force. If above 60, he was to be kept in confinement for life. Any citizen was at liberty to prevent the transportation of a mendicant, by placing in the hands of the receiver of the district the sum of 500 francs, to be forfeited if the individual were again taken in the offence. The individuals transported to the colonies were to receive one-sixth of the ordinary rate of daily labour; and when the period of their punishment was out, they were to receive a portion of ground from government, which they were put into a state to cultivate, by receiving the accumulations of one-half of their daily allowance, which was to be kept back till their liberty was attained. They were required to remain for the space of one year in the colony after their term of banishment was out, before it was lawful for them to return to France. The colony to which it was proposed to send them, was Fort Dauphin, in Madagascar. Such is the substance of the law of the Convention for the abolition of mendicity; but, as M. Dupin observes, though printed in the *Bulletin des Lois*, and thus forming an integral part of the law of the land, there were neither colonies at Madagascar, nor houses of repression in the departments, and the ancient dépôts of mendicity were allowed to exist in a state of neglect disgraceful to the government, and fearful to humanity.

In 1793, 94, and 96, new laws were passed by the Convention for the *Secours à Domicile*. That of the 8th *Messidor*, an. 2, was the most remarkable of

these. The Assembly having heard the report of the Committee *de Salut Public*, decreed that there should be opened in each district a register, termed *Livre de la Bienfaisance Nationale*, divided as follows:

Le premier titre sera intitulé : *cultivateurs vieillards et infirmes.*

Le second : *Artisans vieillards ou infirmes.*

Le troisième sera consacré *aux mères et aux veuves ayant des enfans dans les campagnes.*

For persons employed in the labours of the soil, an inscription in this register entitled to 160 livres a-year, payable every six months in advance. The necessary requisites were, the age of 60, and having been engaged at least 20 years in the occupation of agriculture. The number of inscriptions in this book was fixed at 400 for each department, with an increase of four inscriptions for each 1000 of the inhabitants, if the population exceeded 100,000. Towns having a population of 3000 souls and under were to be included in the country. For the execution of this part of the decree, 7,544,000 francs were to be put at the disposal of the executive commission of *Secours Publics*, to distribute throughout the republic.

An inscription in the *Livre des Artisans* entitled to a yearly sum of 120 livres; the requisites were 25 years' practice of a mechanical profession in the country (*hors des villes*). The number of inscriptions was fixed at 200 for each department;

the number to be increased by two for every 1000, upon the same conditions as in the former *titre*. A sum of 2,040,000 livres was to be granted to meet this expense.

To be inscribed in the third *titre*, it was necessary to be the wife or widow of a labourer or artisan domiciliated in the country. Wives having two children under 10 years of age, and suckling a third, and widows with one child under 10, and suckling a second, were entitled to 60 livres a-year, and an additional 20, if, at the close of the first year, the children were alive. The duration of this inscription was limited to such a time as the youngest child should have attained the age of three years. The number of inscriptions was to be fixed at 350 for each department, to be augmented as in the former cases, if necessary. There were also to be 150 inscriptions in each department for widows not suckling a child, but having two children under 15 years of age;—3,060,000 livres were decreed to meet this expense. For the medical treatment of these different individuals, when in a state of malady, an *officier de santé*, with a salary of 500 livres a-year, was to be established in the *chef-lieu*, and two assistants with 350 livres, in other parts of the district. Each district was to be furnished with four medicine-chests; two of them to be placed in the hands of any two citizens, the other two to be in reserve. A quantity of rice and potato-flour was to be kept with each box, and for the total expense 160,950 livres were to be voted. When sick, an individual was to receive an additional 10 sous a-day,

and a child under 10, 6 sous. This only to be allowed on the attestation of the medical officer, and not to be continued beyond a *décade* at a time. The last *titre* of this decree is taken up with regulations respecting a ceremony *pour honorer le malheur!*

Supposing this decree to have been put in force, the number of inscriptions throughout the republic would have been 91,300, and the total expense 12,804,950 livres.

At the commencement of the Revolution, it was a subject of considerable argument how the *biens communaux*, or commons, should be disposed of. These *biens communaux* had their origin in the state of the country subsequent to the Crusades, when a few proprietors had possession of the whole of France, which, in consequence, remained in a great measure uncultivated, and afforded only pasture. Latterly they were of great advantage to the poorer classes of society, as affording many families the means of feeding a cow. A great tract of country was certainly lost to cultivation by the extent of these common lands, and it was supposed, that by ordering their sale, about one-third would be added to the annual production of the country. Many persons, therefore, advised their immediate sale; but the Convention did not adopt exactly this idea. By its laws of the 14th August, 1792, and 10th June, 1793, it ordered their division amongst the domiciliated inhabitants of the communes, whether absent or present, of either sex, and of all ages. The advantages procured to the community by this

measure were very trifling, and if the present inhabitants did not suffer, it was preparing a severe deprivation for future poor families.

M. Dupin says, that, not many years back, the municipal councils were advised to complete the alienation of the common lands which had escaped the partition of the Convention. He adds, were this a simple financial measure, let them be sold; but it involves other considerations. When placed in the hands of the municipal authorities, would a part of the product be spent on the poor?—There are too many wants to satisfy! But the sale and partition of the *biens communaux* was not alone the aim of some persons during the Revolution;—the necessity of the total destruction of the wealthy was preached up, and the idea of an agrarian law, by which poverty no longer was to have existence, was propagated throughout the country. Government, however, found it necessary to check the progress of such opinions, and threatened to inflict the punishment of death on whoever should propose them. M. Dupin, speaking on this subject, says, the territory of France comprehends 51,910,062 hectares, which include not only the productive soil, but the roads, rivers, sands (*landes*), and sterile ground of every description. The population is 29,327,388 inhabitants; so that each individual would receive a territorial surface of 1 hectare 77 ares, and 199 square millimètres. The *Cadastre* rates the mean value of the hectare at 23 francs 65 cents of revenue. The agrarian law, then, would give to each inhabi-

tant an annual revenue of 41 francs 86 cents; while at present the day-labourer earns, in ordinary times, 375 francs a-year, counting 300 days of work, at 1 franc 25 cents a-day.

As the storms of the Revolution began to abate, attention was more particularly directed towards the condition of the poor; but, for a long time, no system could be brought to work well. The decrees of the 7th Frimaire and 20th Ventose, an. 5, were in several points deserving of praise; but the country did not possess the means of putting them in execution, and they were, for the time at least, productive of very little benefit. The large towns alone were bettered by them; while in the more retired parts of the republic they did little good, and almanacks often contained long lists of persons appointed to administer the funds of the poor, who, in all likelihood, had not a franc to distribute. The *Dépôts de Mendicité*, which had gradually been diminishing in number, and falling into a state of the most complete mal-administration, were once more proposed as the means of extinguishing mendicity. It was imagined, that their establishment in the different departments, calculated to a certain size, would be attended with the very best effects. It was enacted, in consequence, on the 5th July, 1808, by imperial decree, dated at Bayonne, that mendicity be forbidden in the empire, and that the mendicants of each department should be arrested and placed in the *dépôt* as soon as it should be formed. During the fifteen days subsequent to the

complete establishment and organization of each *dépôt*, the prefect, by proclamation, was to make known that it was ready to receive inmates, and every mendicant without means of subsistence was required to repair to it. The warning was to be given for three successive Sundays in all the communes of the department, and after that every mendicant was to be arrested by the local authorities. Each of the *Dépôts de Mendicité* was to be created by a separate decree, and the expenses were to be jointly maintained by government, the departments, and large towns. In conformity, therefore, with the imperial decree, fifty-nine *dépôts* were created; but thirty-seven of them only were ever put in operation, to wit:—

In 1809,	3
1810,	9
1811,	9
1812,	8
1813,	3
1815,	2
1816,	2
1818,	1
	37

But the good results looked for from these *dépôts* were never obtained. After a cost of about 300,000 francs each to establish them, and an annual expense for several years of about 90,000 francs each

to maintain them, the administration found that there was no sensible effect produced in diminishing the number of mendicants. Each *détenu* cost at least 220 francs a-year, and often more; and the work performed in the house was so trifling as not in any measure to meet the expense. In fact, the great proportion of inmates came to be aged and infirm persons, incapable of working; for the original purpose of the *dépôts* was soon forgot. There were admitted into them prostitutes afflicted with disease, persons afflicted with bad cutaneous diseases and with epilepsy, lunatics, and, when the prisons of the department were full, criminals condemned by the courts of justice. In fine, whole families were at times admitted through interest, though they by no means belonged to the class for which the *dépôts* were specially destined. A population composed of such contradictory materials, and which was in a constant state of change and renewal, could not be kept in order, except by a very strict and severe surveillance. The management of the *dépôts*, therefore, became complicated, and the number of persons connected with them increased, till they swallowed up the greater portion of the funds. As these establishments were created for a limited number, it is probable that at first the idea of being confined in them operated to prevent some from begging; but the moment they were filled mendicity became as common as formerly. In addition, there was perhaps nothing very terrible in the prospect of being obliged to live in them, for

the inmates were well fed, and had little or no work. Infirm persons, especially, found in them a quiet and secure existence; and the administration, instead of being under the necessity of using strong measures to fill them, were overwhelmed with demands for admittance.

In every country there are, in all parts of it, a certain number of individuals whom misery forces upon the charity of their brethren. This population perishes and is renewed, and, except in extraordinary cases, it neither augments nor diminishes in a certain number of years. Were the administration to open on every side establishments in which persons in want of the necessaries of life might grow to an old age free from any care, the equilibrium would soon be destroyed. Those individuals, reduced by the ordinary course of things to mendicity, arrive as formerly at their unfortunate term; but as the existence of those who had preceded them has been prolonged, the number has necessarily been increased, and the establishments destined to receive them insufficient. Besides, if all those individuals living upon small salaries, obtained from the public or from private persons for their services, possessed the certainty of being received into *dépôts* at the period when age and infirmity should render them less capable of labour, many would quit their profession before the decline of their strength constrained them to it, and, almost all secure for the future, would lose that provident feeling which might make them save part of their

earnings for after contingencies! Mendicants in this way would multiply exceedingly, and their number would soon surpass the capacity of the largest establishments.

But, if these *dépôts* are not a preservative against mendicity in ordinary cases, how much less are they so in the event of any sudden calamity raising the value of the articles of subsistence, or diminishing the demand for labour! In agricultural and manufacturing provinces, thousands are at times thrown out of employment, and what resource can a *dépôt* of 3 or 400 places afford to them, even if not already occupied by individuals habitually pauper and incapable of work. They must either swell the list of mendicants, or, being admitted into such establishments, must be liable to lose their spirit of industry, and from active labourers become lazy paupers. The natural conclusion from what has been said is, that these *Dépôts de Mendicité* can never in any measure preserve the country from mendicity, or even diminish the evil. As long as they are upon their present footing, that is impossible. They would require to be managed in a very different manner to do so. Instead of being what they really are,—a sort of poor's house,—they ought to have the character of a bridewell, or even prison, solely for the reception of confirmed mendicants, where they should be obliged to work as hard as their strength and sex would allow them. These *dépôts* allow scarcely any difference between the confirmed mendicant and the unfortunate pauper;

and this want of distinction is necessarily attended with bad consequences;—the mark of shame is not sufficiently branded upon the former to prevent the latter from falling into the same course of life. Those departments, then, which have gone to a great expense in the hopes of getting rid of an evil, have attained no satisfactory results. Facts speak the truth of this in an incontrovertible manner. From the year 1814 to 1818, the councils of departments demanded the suppression of no fewer than twenty-four of the *Dépôts de Mendicité*. Since then the suppression of others has been called for, and very many of those created by special decrees have never been put to use. The *dépôts* were established without their object being sufficiently defined, and an uncertainty, in consequence, always existed as to the description of persons admissible into them. By some they were accounted *Maisons de Secours*, or poor's houses,—by others, *Maisons de Repression*, or bridewells. They were sometimes neither; they were oftener both. In the one case, the inmates were treated worse,—in the other, better than they deserved. The government, which had established them, had not gone far enough in its legislation on the subject; and they were, therefore, left to the direction of the councils of departments, who viewed them in very opposite lights.

When the fifty-nine *dépôts* were created by imperial decree, the total sum deemed necessary for their first establishment was 13,029,796 francs, and that for their annual maintenance considerably above

3,000,000. The total number of inmates they were destined to hold was 21,700. In 1818 there existed only twenty-two *dépôts*, destined by the decrees which created them to hold 8775 persons; but only capable, from deficiency of funds and other reasons, of holding 5433. The expense of their maintenance was 1,392,168 francs, or about 250 francs a-year for each individual.

CHAPTER XII.

SYSTEM AT PRESENT ADOPTED FOR THE MAINTENANCE OF THE POOR THROUGHOUT FRANCE.

By the law of the 7th Frimaire, an. 5, (27th November, 1796), there were instituted in each canton of the republic, one or more *Bureaux de Bienfaisance.* These bureaux were charged with the distribution of the *Secours à Domicile*; they were to receive legacies and donations made in favour of the poor; and, in fine, were to take charge of all matters connected with the public administration of charity. It was some time, however, before their creation was attended with benefit; but, as the storms of the Revolution passed away, and the country recovered some degree of internal peace and regular government, they came into fuller operation. Before stating more particularly the nature of these bureaux, which now form the groundwork of public charity in France, it is necessary to give some idea of the territorial division of the kingdom, as the change in that point since their first establishment has produced a change in their arrangement and distribution. By the law of 5th Fructidor, an.

3, each department of the republic was divided into cantons, and each canton into communes. Each department had a central and general administration, and each canton at least one municipal administration. Each commune had one or more municipal agents, as they were termed, and the agents of the different communes conjoined formed the municipality of the canton. By a law of the year 8, the European territory of the republic was distributed into departments and *arrondissemens communaux*. Thus, when *Bureaux de Bienfaisance* were first established, there existed a municipal administration by cantons, and each canton had a bureau. But the law of 28th Pluviose, an. 8, (17th February, 1800,) having suppressed the municipal administrations of cantons, and created municipal administrations of communes, the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance*, which were under the municipal authority, came necessarily to be modified accordingly. Still, the change has not been complete, and the distribution by canton still subsists in some parts of the country, and is attended with much inconvenience. In the first place, the extent of territory in a canton is so great, that if the bureaux be composed, as they ought then to be, of members from the different communes, it is scarcely possible for them to meet; and, in the next place, if the members, to avoid this, be selected in the *chef-lieu* or principal town, it is more than probable that the inhabitants of this town will be fa-

voured over the poor of the other communes of the canton.

The communes of France differ in extent of surface and in population according as they contain large towns or are entirely rural.* There are 353 of them which, on the former account, contain a population of more than 5000 souls. Cantons, which, previous to the law of the year 8, formed a principal division of the territory, are now adopted more for geographical convenience than for any purpose of administration. The actual division of territory in France, with the form of public administration, may be stated as follows:—1st, Departments, administered by a prefect, a council of prefecture, and a general council of department. This last council is composed of twenty members, named by the king for a period of three years. It sits once a-year for a period not exceeding fifteen days. The time of sitting is determined by royal ordonnance. Its principal duties are, to look after the *centimes additionels* laid on by the prefect; to report the state of the

* Communities of inhabitants are composed of a union of citizens, inhabiting or possessing property in the same *ville, bourg,* or *village,* and in the territory belonging to these.

The Constitution of 1791, tit. 1, art. 8, gives a good definition of a commune:—"Les citoyens Français, considérés sous le rapport des rélations locales qui naissent de leur réunion dans les villes, et dans certains arrondissemens du territoire des campagnes, forment les communes."—Dupin, *Lois des Communes,* p. 7.

department to the minister of the interior; and, when improvements or any public works are requisite, to obtain the proper authority from the minister to undertake them. M. Lainé, when minister, was the first person who conceived the idea of collecting and making public the demands of departments, advanced through the medium of their general councils. By the system introduced by him, it may be said, that the councils of all the departments of the realm concur in forming one universal council, from the opinions of which the minister and the community may be able to judge of the real internal state of the country. For example, when 53 out of 86 departments demand the formation of roads, the government must be convinced that improvement on that head is required.

2d,—Each department is divided into *arrondissemens communaux* or *sous-préfectures.* The *sous-préfets* are nominated to these by the king. Their council, which is termed *Conseil d'Arrondissement,* consists of eleven members, named by the king for three years. It sits, in conformity with royal ordonnance, for a period not exceeding fifteen days. This period is subdivided into two terms;—the one, which cannot exceed ten days, immediately precedes the session of the general council of department,—the other, of five days, immediately follows it.

3d,—Each arrondissement is divided into communes; which, of course, vary in number. Each has a *maire,* with one or two adjuncts, nominated,

like himself, for five years. The municipal council sits, like the other councils, for a period of fifteen days, commencing in May; and the number of the members is regulated by the population.

Such is the division of territory which it is proper to know before inquiring into the nature of charity-bureaux. The law has established them in every commune of the kingdom; but yet they are far from being all in effective operation, though becoming every day more general. Each *bureau* is composed of five members, who, if it be necessary, on account of the population, may associate with themselves any citizens or Dames de Charité in quality of assistants, to visit the poor in particular quarters. One member goes out every year as in the hospital-commissions, (treated of in a former part of the work,) and any one may be at the same time a member of a charity-bureau and of an hospital-commission. In fact, in many departments the same administration performs the duty of both; and this conjunction is, on the head of economy, rather favoured. When the receipts of the hôspices of a commune, united to those of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance, do not exceed 20,000 francs, they are intrusted to the same treasurer, (*receveur*;) when they do not exceed 10,000, to the treasurer of the municipality, if his residence be not too distant. These treasurers are required to furnish security to a certain amount, proportional to the sum intrusted to them. This security is at the rate of four or

five per cent. on sums below 20,000 francs; one per cent. when they exceed that amount.

Besides the commissions for administering hospices and the Bureaux de Bienfaisance, there is a third species of council connected with the public distribution of relief to the poor, termed Council of Charity, which holds a sort of surveillance over the other two. These councils exist wherever the establishments of charity are of sufficient importance to render them necessary. Their *ex officio* members are archbishops, bishops, first presidents, and procureurs-généraux of Royal Courts, or, in their place, presidents and procureurs of Tribunals de Première Instance, presidents of tribunals of commerce, rectors of academies, senior curés, presidents of consistories, vice-presidents of chambers of commerce, and senior justices of the peace. The ordinary members are to the number of five in communes having fewer than 5000 inhabitants; 10 in those having more. They are nominated and changed in the same manner as the members of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance. The councils of charity sit twice a-year, in conjunction with the hospital-commissions and charity-bureaux, when the different matters connected with the administration of the poor are taken under consideration, and plans of improvement proposed.

The principal duty of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance is to distribute what the French term *Secours à Domicile,* that is to say, to give assistance, as far

as possible, whether in health or sickness, to the poor at their own homes. This may with justice be said to form the most interesting branch of public charity; it ought to form the basis or groundwork of the whole system, and hospitals and hospices should be but a supplement to it.* They are necessary to but a limited portion of the poor community, and to that portion only when in a state of disease and absolute want, without relations, without friends, and without any personal means of subsistence. To the great mass of the poor, the *Secours à Domicile*, if properly administered, will in every way apply. It is more satisfactory to the feelings of a poor man to be succoured in his own house, there to receive the care and attention of his wife, children, or parents, than to find himself in a state of isolation in an hospital or poor's-house, among individuals attached to him by no tie of kindred or friendship. Public morality cannot but be a gainer

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* Les Bureaux de Bienfaisance, étant les auxiliaires nés des hospices, peuvent éviter à ces établissemens une grande dépense, au moyen d'une sage distribution de secours à domicile. En effet il n'est point de père de famille qui ne s'estime heureux, lorsqu'il est atteint de maladie, de pouvoir rester près de sa femme et ses enfans; et pour cela il suffit d'alléger une partie de sa dépense par des distributions de médicamens et d'alimens à domicile. En consequence, on ne peut mieux entendre la charité qu'en multipliant les secours à domicile, et en leur donnant la meilleure direction possible.—*Instruction de M. le Conseiller d'Etat chargé de l'Administration Générale des Hospices, &c. près le Ministère de l'Intérieur.*

in a system which tends to strengthen the bonds of family-affection, and to aid children and relatives in fulfilling the duties imposed on them by nature. The report made to the General Hospital-Council of the capital, which contains many sentiments similar to those just used, observes, that the *Secours à Domicile*, as at present administered, were an object of desire long before the circumstances of the times allowed of their establishment.

In the capital the administration of the *Secours à Domicile* necessarily embraces a wide range. Independent of the immense population, stationary and casual, which swells the poor's-lists, and which renders Paris an epitome of the kingdom, and an object of the deepest interest to the legislator, the description of the system will be no less an object of curiosity from the variety of details connected with it. In France, if a system does work well, it is in the capital that its perfection is to be found. It too frequently happens that elsewhere a laxity prevails in putting the good intentions of the law into effect. It must be allowed, that in no country of the world are such good regulations to be found as in France. Every city, every town, every village, has its laws, decrees, and regulations, which in the statute-book appear perfect and worthy of all praise. Inquiry, however, will often show a lamentable deficiency in their execution; and to this fact is owing the difficulty frequently experienced in ascertaining the exact state of France in many points connected with its internal administration.

The precision of its laws, and the imperfect manner often in which they are put into effect, tend to bewilder and confuse the observer, and to warp his judgment. On the one side, by an admiration of these laws, he is induced to overrate the advantages of the country; while on the other, by remarking how imperfectly they are at times executed, he may be induced to give a more unfavourable account of it than it deserves. It is a common remark among Frenchmen, (for the most enlightened of them are not unaware of this imperfection,) that in England the laws are bad, but are well kept, while in France they are excellent, but ill kept. In the laws which concern the poor, as well as in others, the faults just mentioned are perceptible; but it must be allowed, that of late years improvement in this respect, if it has not been universal, has still been gradually extending over the country. In the capital the institution of *Bureaux de Bienfaisance* has been of the greatest service, and the successive improvements made since their first establishment, in 1801, have brought them to a high state of perfection. The assistance given by them is now rigorously defined in its character as well as its extent,—a matter which, during the first years of their existence, was too little attended to. The poor at first participated in their benefits in too easy and unlimited a way, and the employment of the funds was thus liable to great abuse. The fault lay not so much with the distributors of charity, as in an oversight in making the regulations too

general and indiscriminate. At present the system is chiefly founded upon the royal ordonnance of 1816; and the funds of the poor are carefully husbanded, and the assistance given is constantly graduated to the extent of the wants and necessities of each individual.

Before the ordonnance just mentioned, the administration of the *Secours à Domicile* was intrusted to the care of 12 *Central Committees*, as they were termed, composed each of the maire of the *arrondissement* as president, the adjunct maires, justices of the peace, and two members from each *Bureau de Bienfaisance*. These bureaux were 48 in number, four in each arrondissement, consisting each of seven members, named by the prefect of the Seine, and each having its treasurer, secretary, and separate correspondence. There existed no uniformity or *ensemble* in the system, and no exact information could be acquired from them as to the real number and wants of the poor. Two months after the creation of the General Hospital Council of Paris, the *Secours à Domicile* were included amongst its functions; an unity of action was thus to a certain degree obtained, although the Charity Bureaux still called for some change. This change was brought about at the Restoration. The 48 Bureaux were suppressed, and 12 Bureaux of Charity were created in their place to distribute the Secours à Domicile through the 12 arrondissements of Paris. These are now under the jurisdiction of the prefect of the Seine and of the Council-General of Hospitals; they are

composed of the mayors of their respective arrondissements as presidents, of 12 administrators named by the minister of the interior amongst the most respectable inhabitants of the capital, and of an indeterminate number of charitable persons of both sexes for visiting the poor, but who have not a consulting voice in the deliberations of the bureaux. The curés are also *ex officio* members of the bureaux of the arrondissement in which their churches are situated. Any protestant clergymen are also members of them. The 12 ordinary members of these bureaux are renewed by one-fourth annually, and each arrondissement being divided into 12 quarters, in reference to the poor, each of these members has a particular quarter under his direct surveillance, and has a certain number of respectable artizans or Dames de Charité to assist him.

The official persons attached to each bureau are, a treasurer, lawyers to give gratuitous advice when required to the poor, ordinary and consulting physicians and surgeons, *élèves* in medicine and surgery, midwives, Sisters of Charity, and school masters and mistresses.

The charge of the clothes, medicines, linen, &c. is intrusted to the Sisters of Charity, as also the charge of the sick at their own homes, when that is necessary.

Each bureau has a weekly meeting, at which seven members form a quorum, and one annual meeting when the accounts of the year are made up. Once a-year, also, on a day fixed by the prefect, the

presidents, or, in their place, two members from each bureau, are invited to join in a general meeting of the Hospital-Council; when they are expected to give an account of the employment of their funds, and of the state of the poor in their respective jurisdictions.

The visiting and inspection of the poor are intrusted to those persons appointed by the bureau under the title of visitors. Their duty is one of great importance, as on it in a great measure depends the justice of the distribution made. It requires great discrimination and attention to mark the distinction between the really indigent and those who are so from laziness or ill conduct: the business of these visitors is to mark this distinction. The poor most to be pitied are not those who are the most urgent in their demands; the most miserable, the most deserving of the pity and charity of the public, are often ashamed to apply, and hide their distress from those who would be ready to relieve it.

The Roman Catholic church, in allowing too great merit to the giver of alms, has done much mischief to the community. The givers of charity, content with having given, cared little or nothing to what manner of persons they gave it. The act was, in their estimation, not the less praiseworthy, because the charity bestowed was ill applied and abused. But reserve, and even severity, are absolutely necessary in the administration of poor's-funds, from a principle of common justice; for if all the poor can-

not be equally relieved, they at least ought to be so in proportion to their distresses and their wants. The appearance of misery, then, must not be the guide; the poor must be examined as to their age, infirmities, families, causes of misery, resources they have or once had, the cause of the loss of these resources, their moral conduct, the care they have taken of their children, and various other points. It must also be ever observed as a maxim, that it is not sufficient to grant assistance; it is also necessary to inquire diligently how that assistance is employed, and if the use made of it has been proper.

The assistance given to the poor is of three kinds, annual, temporary, and extraordinary; and it is necessary that this division should be rigorously defined and adhered to. Let the funds be ever so flourishing, it is impossible, and to a certain degree it would be improper, to administer to the total wants of those for whom they are destined; they must only be partially assisted. To extend the assistance indiscriminately to all, without inquiring how far that assistance is necessary, and demands to be continued, is to destroy the power of relieving such as, from real misfortune, claim a full and constant assistance.* Each bureau, then, is required

* C'est un des grands vices des Hôpitaux de ne point subdiviser les secours en raison de l'assistance plus ou moins partielle qui peut suffire aux pauvres; cet avantage existe dans les distributions de Secours à Domicile, et il y produit un bien inappréciable. Ainsi l'homme, qui, avec le produit de deux

to keep a register of its poor, divided in the manner mentioned. The indigents admitted to annual relief are, the blind, the paralytic, the cancerous and infirm, persons aged above 65, heads of families with at least three children below 12 years of age.* In the partition of assistance these are divided into four classes, according to the extent of their privations or wants. The 1st class comprehends the blind and those above 80 years of age; the 2d, Persons from 75 to 80 years of age, and those afflicted with severe infirmity; 3d, Aged and infirm persons below 75 years of age; 4th, Fathers with young families. The num-

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heures de travail de plus par jour qu'il n'en peut faire à raison de son âge, de ses infirmités, ou de toute autre cause, se trouveroit au niveau de ses besoins, peut être, en lui suppléant ce produit, complétement secouru par une foible somme.—*Cinquième Rapport du Comité de Mendicité*, p. 43.

* Les individus qui sont affectés des maladies ou infirmités ci-après dénommées sont regardés comme infirmes incurables par les médecins du Bureau Central d'Admission, savoir:

Tremblement général.—Impotence rhumatismale goutteuse, suite de luxation, &c.—Paralysie incurable complète ou incomplète.—Incontinence d'urine ou des excremens.—Aneurysme du cœur ou des gros trones artériels.—Asthme chronique ou suffocant.—Hydropisies enkystées.—Rachitisme, déformation de la poitrine, du bassin, ou des membres.—Dartres rongeantes incurables.—Difformités d'un aspect repoussant ou qui rendent l'indigent inapte au travail.—Hernies volumineuses ou difficiles à contenir.—Privation d'un membre.—Surdité complète. Etat de sourd-muet.—Idiotisme.—Epilepsie.—Cancers incurable.—Cécité complète incurable, ou faiblesse de la vue assez grande pour empêcher l'indigent de se livrer à aucun travail.—*Resumé, &c. approuvé par le Conseil Général des Hospices.*

ber of individuals to be admitted into each of these classes is determined by the General Hospital Council, on the proposition of the Bureaux of Charity. This number is on no account to be exceeded. At the same time an allotted sum is voted, and the division enables this to be done with more ease and precision, the cost of each class being determined before-hand. The annual assistance thus given by the Bureaux of Charity is in some respects analogous to that given in the hospices; the amount and extent of it is fixed, and if the numbers admitted to participate in their benefits are complete, others must wait their turn as they would do in an hospital, and, in the meantime, they may receive temporary assistance.*

The indigents admitted to temporary relief are those who, from malady, want of work, or similar causes, are reduced to a state of necessitous poverty. Extraordinary relief is given in extraordinary cases, such as fires, robbery, or accidental misfortunes. The bureaux enjoy a latitude in the distribution of their assistance; they must, however, as far as that is possible, give it in kind (*en nature*). Great reserve is maintained in the distribution of money; and if that cannot altogether be avoided, it is, at

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* Les dispositions des art. 35 et 36 de l'arreté ministeriel portant que le nombre des individus à admettre sera determiné tous les ans en Conseil Général des Hospices, n'ont jamais eté mises en exécution.—*Notes furnished to the Author by the General Administration.*

least, practised as little as circumstances will allow. The annual relief given to persons totally unable to earn their subsistence consists of bread, soup, meat, linen, clothes, firewood, and money, if it be accounted necessary or proper: all this to the value of a certain sum, which must not be exceeded. It requires considerable attention to distribute these articles proportionally to the wants of the different seasons; were they given once a-year, there would exist no difficulty; but as it is, it is often a difficult matter, as their quantity is limited, to make the proper partition. All cases of assistance given to the poor in form of money are cases of exception; and on this head the system is excellent, and has been attended with much moral benefit. The caution with which such relief is given keeps temptation out of the way of many whose principles are too feeble to be altogether beyond it, and, at the same time, it ensures a proper subsistence to many, who, did they purchase the necessaries of life themselves, might be exposed to loss from ignorance or fraud.

The pecuniary relief given by the bureaux is six francs a-month to octogenarians,—three francs to persons from seventy-five to eighty years of age, and to the blind. In addition to these, a supplementary fund of 4000 francs is put at the disposal of the bureaux, to relieve such persons as do not exactly come under the class entitled to their regular assistance. Thus, poor mothers suckling their children, who, from the charge they have of their

family, cannot well go into an hospital, receive pecuniary aid during the course of their malady, provided that malady does not prevent them giving suck. Their complaints must be certified by the medical officers of the Bureau Central, and the minimum of relief given is 25 centimes,—the maximum, one franc a-day. Upon the recommendation of the bureaux of charity, minor degrees of relief are distributed to many poor persons in the capital. Thus, stamped paper is given to such as may require it for executing any deeds required by the civil law of the country. Gratuitous consultations,* baths, fumigations, bandages, cheap soups, firewood, and other articles, are distributed when urgently required. The General Council also lends small sums of money, not exceeding 50 francs, to poor families, who may wish to buy a small stock of goods,

* Gratuitous consultations are given at the *Bureau Central d'Admission*, at the Charité, and at the Hospital of St Louis. The number given at the Bureau Central in 1822 was 11,740, of which about five-eighths were for medical cases,—three-eighths for surgical. At St Louis, the number has increased since 1816 from 4320 to 28,316, and the total, for a period of ten years, was 178,879. Of these, 133,315 were medical,—45,564 surgical cases. At the Charité, consultations upon surgical cases are given every day,—upon medical cases, twice a-week; men and women on different days. The medical consultations may amount to forty or fifty,—the surgical to fifteen or twenty a-day. M. Dupuytren, also, after his clinical lesson, gives gratuitous consultations to about thirty persons daily.

or to procure working-tools ; and thus, by removing temporary difficulties, has often prevented irretrievable ruin. The borrower repays the loan by weekly or monthly payments, and it has rarely happened that the administration have suffered loss by this practice.

To persons out of employment temporary assistance is given; but as much as possible work is made a condition of this assistance. Whenever an allowance is made to a pauper in this situation, it is not delivered to him directly, nor is money given him to purchase it. He receives an order upon some person employed by the administration, who gives the quantity of meat, bread, or whatever may be therein contained, and whose account is paid at regular intervals; the articles being charged at a rate agreed upon between him and the administration. In certain parts of the town there are establishments under the title of *Maisons de Secours*, under the charge and management of the Sisters of Charity. The Council-General wished that there should have been at least four of these houses in each arrondissement,—the number as yet, however, has not exceeded thirty in all. There is always kept in them a stock of necessaries of various sorts. There are also an apparatus for making soup, a small laboratory,* a children's school, and sometimes

* All compound medicines are furnished to the Bureaux of Charity by the *Pharmacie Centrale*. In the laboratories be-

a manufacture of different articles, in which the children of the poor are instructed. The distribution is made by the Bureaux of Charity once a-month, on a fixed day, and is intrusted to the care of the persons attached to them under the title of visitors. On the day of distribution, they remit to each indigent of their division, in proportion to his wants, a certain number of cards. Upon presenting these during the course of the month at the *Maison de Secours* of his quarter, he receives from the Sisters of Charity the articles therein mentioned.

There is attached to each bureau a legal committee, as it is termed, to give gratis advice to the poor. The ordonnance of the king of the 28th August, 1816, contains this declaration :—" It often happens, that, through ignorance, the poorer classes of the community neglect their own interest, or, deceived by bad advice, become exposed to the loss of any trifling patrimony they may possess, and which is perhaps almost their sole means of subsistence.

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longing to the bureaux the following articles alone can be prepared :—

Tisannes.	Cataplasmes.
Potions.	Linimens.
Petit-lait.	Digestifs.
Sucs.	Eaux distillées.
Gargarismes.	Eaux aromatiques.
Médecines.	

Arreté du Cons. Gen. des Hospices, Aout 2, 1822.

To persons in such a situation it will be valuable to have it in their power to obtain gratuitously the advice of enlightened magistrates or lawyers." For this purpose, these legal advisers are attached to the Bureaux of Charity; and so liberal is the administration, that, upon their recommendation, it will advance money to prosecute any question that may promise advantageous results to a family or individual unable otherwise to incur the expense of legal proceedings.

No one can participate in the benefits of the *Secours à Domicile* unless previously enrolled in the lists of the Bureaux of Charity. In extraordinary cases, however, the visitors and Dames de Charité may, upon proper authority, distribute some of the cards, which they always retain in their hands for occasions of necessity. No indigent person has a right to permanent assistance except in his place of domicile, as laid down by the law of 24th Vend. an. 2, (15th October, 1793.) The inhabitants of other departments of France, who may chance to be at Paris, must apply to the minister of the interior, who has at his disposal a special fund for their assistance. Previous to the new regime, there used to be immense numbers of persons relieved in Paris who were strangers to the department of the Seine; thus the proportion upon 100 poor was—

	1804.	1813.
Natives of the department of the Seine,	48	35
Natives of other departments,	51	64½
Foreigners, . .	1	½

To what extent the number has been diminished it is not easy to discover; but it is probable that the regulation which forbids the individual residing in furnished lodgings from receiving assistance from the bureaux of charity has been attended with a diminished influx of poor from the provinces.

In the article 35th of the *arreté* of the minister in 1816, it is particularly mentioned, that no indigent person will receive assistance if he cannot prove his having sent his children to school, or if he refuses to have them vaccinated.* The former of these points concerns the interest of the poor themselves; the latter that of society at large. Neither of these conditions can possibly be accounted a hardship, as education and vaccination are both to be had gratuitously. On the contrary, to use the words of the report of the General Council, the government which grants a benefit has certainly a right to attach conditions to it; and, when these conditions are of advantage to him for whom the benefit is designed, they but add another claim to his gratitude. It must, however, be confessed, that this regulation exists as an intention rather than a law; for, though education has extended among the lower classes of society, a great proportion of those receiving public assistance have not fulfilled it. It is very difficult at once to reduce to practice

* Nul indigent ne recevra de secours s'il ne justifie qu'il envoie ses enfans à l'école, ou s'il refuse de les faire vacciner.

a regulation of this description,—exceptions must always be made; and, if so, it is impossible to say when they are to stop. But an enlightened administration of the poor may do much to increase the diffusion of knowledge. It may do so by encouragement on the one hand; on the other by relieving families who are obliged to employ even the tenderest years of their children in assisting to earn their daily subsistence. This good has to a certain degree been done; and there is no doubt that the encouragement given by the charitable administrations in Paris and elsewhere to schools for the poor has been attended with great moral benefit to the country.* Equal encouragement is given to induce parents to have their children vaccinated; in addition to the ordinary relief, five francs are given for every child that undergoes this operation. In spite of this, however, and in face of the regulation above quoted, there are too many instances of the neglect of this salutary precaution, of which the in-

* Les Bureaux de Bienfaisance ne doivent pas borner leurs soins à la distribution des secours à domicile; ils doivent encore les étendre aux écoles de charité. Ces écoles font une des parties les plus intéressantes de leur administration: car si, par des secours appliqués avec discernement, ils soutiennent la vieillesse sans ressources,—d'un autre côté, par une éducation morale et religieuse, ils disposent les enfans à se garantir un jour du fléau de la misère, en leur inculquant l'amour du travail, l'esprit d'ordre, d'économie, et de prévoyance.—*Instructions du Ministre de l'Intérieur.*

crease in the number of deaths from small-pox of late years is the best proof.*

* In the course of the year 1825 there were born in France 587,948 children; of whom about two-thirds, or 378,500, were vaccinated. 26,571 took the small-pox, of which number 2245 were difigured, 3369 died. In this year small-pox was epidemical in Paris, and the number of deaths occasioned by its ravages was tremendous, and shows, that, in spite of good regulations, there still exists great prejudice or culpable want of attention on this head. The *Annuaire du Bureau des Longitudes* gives the following table of deaths by small-pox, in 1825, according to age and sex:—

Ages.	Males.	Females.	Total.
From 0 to 3 months,	7	8	15
3 6	18	11	29
6 12	69	62	131
In the first year,	94	81	175
From 1 to 2 years,	149	144	293
2 3	139	142	281
3 4	116	119	235
4 5	98	77	175
5 6	87	57	144
6 7	57	43	100
7 8	42	19	61
8 9	31	21	52
9 10	15	10	25
10 15	78	32	110
15 20	112	51	163
20 25	168	51	219
25 30	70	35	105
30 35	24	7	31
35 40	8	2	10
40 45	5	1	6
45 50	4	1	5
50 55		2	2
55 60			
60 65			
65 70	1		1
70 75		1	1
Total,	1298	896	2194

Every year the bureaux of charity are required to make up a budget of the presumed receipts and expenses of the ensuing year to be presented to the Council-General of Hospitals, by it to be ratified on the authority of the minister; and in the following month the sum to be allotted to the different bureaux is fixed, the calculation being made according to the number of families on the poor's-rolls. Every three months the council opens a credit to a certain amount in each of the bureaux, and every month the treasurers must give in a statement of the employment of their funds to that member of the General Council specially charged with the accounts of the administration. The bureaux are entitled to employ every means they may judge proper for increasing the funds of the poor; for instance, by collections and subscriptions. The money raised in this way is entirely at their own disposal; but

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In many other states of continental Europe great attention is paid to vaccination. In Austria, in particular, medical men are appointed to act as vaccinators, and are paid accordingly. If they have been very successful they receive certain rewards in addition to their fixed salary. From the *Mediz. Jahrbuch des K. K. Œsterr. Staates*, we should calculate the number of children vaccinated in the year 1824 at above 700,000.

In the kingdom of Naples, the number of births, in 1824, was 231,936; of these 67,674 were vaccinated.

From the official reports of the *College of Health* of Stockholm, it would appear, that, in the year 1823, only 12 persons died of small-pox in the whole kingdom, and in 1824 no fewer than 560.

must, at the same time, be stated in the annual account given up to the General Council. As it may be supposed naturally to happen, that in the richest arrondissements the money obtained in this way will be greatest, and in those where the indigent population preponderates that it must be proportionally less, it was at one time proposed that a general fund should be formed from the various sums obtained in this way, to be afterwards divided among the arrondissements according to their wants. This idea, however, was laid aside; for experience went to prove, that the contributions of the public were always most liberal when the poor they relieved were more directly under their eye. When the money was thrown into a general fund their zeal was weakened, and a species of indifference produced. An *arreté* of the minister of the interior, in 1803, authorised the administrations of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance in each arrondissement to make a collection in all places destined for religious purposes. The charge was given to the Sisters of Charity and other females devoted to the care of the poor. Boxes were to be placed for receiving alms in all churches, in all edifices, in which civil, judicial, or military bodies hold their sittings, and, in fine, in all establishments where the feelings of charity are likely to be excited. The money obtained in this way, however, covers but a small portion of the expenses of these bureaux; the great burden is supported by the general administration of the hospitals, hospices, and charitable establish-

ments of the capital. The extent of this burden will be afterwards shown.

In the report annexed to the royal ordonnance of 1816, which regulates the system of *Secours à Domicile*, it is particularly observed with respect to the various existing charitable institutions, that the wish is not to destroy or diminish them, but to augment and improve them, and refer all to one and the same general system, but without interfering in anything that is not contrary to the views of government. Whilst it strongly expresses the advantage of private associations making the bureaux of charity their rallying points, and concurring with the members of those offices as to the modes of multiplying and improving the means of assistance and relief, it, at the same time, confines itself to the expression of a wish on this subject.*

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* It has always been, and still is, an evil in France, that the intervention of government is too universal. It does not allow sufficient scope to private undertakings; and, on this head, furnishes a remarkable contrast to England. M. Dupin, whose authority must always be great, complains deeply of this defect in the government of his country; and, in the following passage, forcibly points it out to the public.

He says,—" Quelle différence prodigieuse entre le système que suivent à l'égard de ces travaux l'administration Britannique et l'administration Française! Le gouvernement Anglais a prêté 51 millions de francs en billets de l'Echiquier *afin d'aider à l'exécution des travaux publics par des associations particulières*, soulageant ainsi la détresse des ouvriers oisifs. Cette administration *prête* donc *à trois pour cent aux citoyens*, afin

The report adds, that from the harmony, intelligence, and union which it would be easy to establish between institutions having the same object, and persons inspired with the same sentiments, the result would be, that the greatest good would be done in the easiest and most efficacious manner. It would be to risk the loss or diminution of the succours given to the poor, if, by exaggerated pretensions, and by a rivalry contrary to the principles of charity, anything should be done to exclude or fetter private associations founded upon mutual confidence. The business of the general administration, then, is not only to increase and extend the benefits of its own charity, but to encourage and support other charitable enterprises already existing, or which may be set on foot. One of the most interesting features of the public administration, and

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qu'ils exécutent eux-mêmes et par association les travaux qu'ils ont reconnus utiles à la société. L'administration Française, au contraire, *emprunte* aux habitans à 6 à 7 et 7½ p. 100, afin d'exécuter par elle-même les travaux qu'*elle seule juge devoir leur être utiles.*"

It is not intended to discuss at present how far this interference of government is advisable. To the extent to which it is carried in France it cannot certainly be defended; but there are cases where so powerful a co-operation is attended with considerable advantage. In the charitable institutions hitherto treated of, for example, its intervention has certainly been of great service, as it is not used to such an extent as to fetter private individuals in their attempts to assist the poor.

the other charities of Paris, is the entire agreement that prevails between them. A few instances will prove this harmonious feeling. The Society of Maternal Charity, for giving assistance to mothers suckling their infants, is obliged to limit the amount of relief it affords; but those thus excluded are relieved at the different Bureaux of Charity, upon the recommendation of the Society. In the same spirit, the Philanthropic Society, which distributes various necessaries of life to the poor, has apparatuses in its own bureau for making soups, of which it freely gives the use to such of the Bureaux of Charity as are not supplied with them.

The system of *secours à domicile* of Paris is well designed, and has had the best effects upon the general state of the community. The number of poor has been diminished by one-half, owing principally to the manner in which they are classed, and the scrutiny made into their real state before permitting them to participate in the assistance given. But this assistance is not merely to aid the physical wants of the people. Their moral necessities are also attended to; and the Bureaux of Charity maintain numerous schools, where the young are instructed in the ordinary elements of education.

It is now proper to notice two special establishments connected with the charitable administration of Paris of a very interesting description. The one of these is termed the *Etablissement de Filature*. It was instituted to provide work for infirm women, mothers with large families, and for

females generally, in a temporary want of occupation. It is thus purely an establishment of charity. The administration not only does not look for any revenue from it, but, on the contrary, has been obliged to pay a greater or less annual sum to its maintenance. It is situated in the Rue St Antoine, near the Place Royale. Indigent women, upon proper application, receive a certain quantity of flax, and, if it be necessary, a spinning-wheel and reel to convert it into thread. For the work which they may, upon returning, produce to the establishment, they receive payment according to its fineness. Before getting anything, however, for the first time, every woman is required to bring the security of the landlord of her house, or of some known person, and also a certificate of a Bureau of Charity, of the curé, the mayor, or the commissary of police. The number of females benefited by this institution may be stated at from 2 to 3000 a-year. As the assistance given is only subsidiary when ordinary labour fails, it is evident the number will increase or diminish according to the exigencies of each year. The linen fabricated is, as much as possible, made use of by the Bureaux of Charity and hospitals, and a tariff of prices is fixed by the General Council. A private individual purchasing pays 5 per cent. more than the prices of the tariff, and the payment must be made before delivery of the article. At one time, ribands of various kinds were made in this establishment; this was found, however, to occasion extra expense, and the fabrication is now con-

fined to linens. The spinners may earn from 50 to 60 centimes (5d. to 6d.) a-day; the weavers 1 franc 50 cent. to 1 franc 75 cent. (15d. to 17½d.) A certain number of the children of females employed by this establishment are sent, at the cost of the administration, to a neighbouring school.

The *Etablissement de Filature* has always created a certain expense to the administration; but this expense has of late years been gradually diminishing, and at present is trifling. In 1820, the expenses amounted to 497,000 francs (£19,900,) the receipts to 403,000 (£16,120,) making a net loss of 94,000 (£3760.) In 1822, the expenses were 443,000 francs (£17,720,) the receipts 403,000 (£16,120), giving an excess of expense of 40,000 (£1600.) Since 1822, the excess of expense has still farther diminished, and it is probable that the receipts will soon altogether cover the expense. At the same time it must be allowed, that an expense of this description is not to be regretted, when the immense advantages procured by this means to the poor and industrious are considered.

M. l'Abbé Gueret, curé of the parish of St Paul, who died in 1764, founded an establishment under the name of *La Petite Communauté des Jeunes Ouvrières Indigentes de St Paul.* The number of inmates was originally fixed at 20, and they were maintained partly from the produce of their labour, and partly by the contributions of the inhabitants of the parish. The charge of it was intrusted to the Sisters of Charity; and this was the only one

of the many charitable schools supported by religious bodies, or individuals, that escaped the storms of the Revolution. The depreciation of paper-money gave it a shock which threw it into disorder, and its ruin might have ensued, had it not been placed under the charge of the General Hospital Administration. The number of places is now fixed at 48; of these 12 are for such girls as can afford to pay a board of 300 francs (£12,) 12 for such as can pay 150 francs (£6,) and the other 24 are gratis. Each arrondissement of Paris; in proportion to its indigent population, sends two or more girls to it, nominated principally by the Bureaux of Charity. No girl is admitted under 5 years of age, and none are retained after 17. They are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, the principles of the French language, and every species of needle-work: one-third of the value of their work is made over to them as an encouragement. The Council-General allows 10,000 francs (£400) a-year for the maintenance of this establishment.

From its limited extent, perhaps this institution in itself scarcely merited such particular notice; at the same time, it seems a model deserving of being followed. The conjunction of elementary instruction with productive labour is an excellent arrangement; and its advantages have been so much appreciated in the capital, that many interesting establishments, formed both by societies and by individuals, have been modelled upon the school of St Paul.

In 1804, it was calculated that there existed in Paris 86,936 indigent persons domiciliated; of these 12,505 were natives of the department of the Seine, 13,312 of other departments, 384 foreigners, 18,424 of birth-place unknown, 42,311 children with their parents. In 1813, the census made 102,806 indigent persons in Paris; and a series of 10 years, from 1804 to 1813 inclusive, gave a mean number of 103,968, or about one-seventh nearly of the total population.* But it must not be supposed that this number received actual assistance from the Bureaux of Charity. Many are placed upon the lists, not to obtain physical assistance, but to enable their children to receive a gratuitous education when their own means do not allow them to pay for it. The total number of individuals placed upon the poor's-lists in 1821 was 77,192; in 1822, 54,371; in 1823, 60,138; and, in 1824, it was 60,543.† Of

* M. de Pastoret, in his admirable *reports*, gives the following proportions of the different classes of poor to the total pauper-population:—

Married men, on 100 poor,	16.0
Married women,	6.9
Widowers,	1.7
Widows,	13.5
Unmarried men,	0 7
Unmarried women,	3.4
Children with their parents,	48.7
Unknown,	9.1

† The following table of the number of indigent persons assisted at their own homes by the Bureaux of Charity, during the year 1823, and of the expense of these Bureaux for the

these numbers, it may be fairly stated, that not much more than two-thirds receive direct relief from the Bureaux, and many of these receive it but partially.* The assistance in kind given to them,

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same year, is taken from the Statistical Tables of Paris, published by the Prefect of the Seine:—

Designation des Arrondissemens.	No de Ménages.	Indigens composant les Ménages.				Total.
		Adultes.		Enfans.		
		Hommes.	Femmes.	Hommes.	Femmes.	
1.	1279	635	1134	381	377	2572
2.	1776	808	1600	429	476	3313
3.	1274	503	1148	364	358	2453
4.	1259	561	1135	319	324	2339
5.	1819	896	1634	393	448	3371
6.	3033	1445	2732	728	778	5683
7.	2168	1092	1910	661	716	4379
8.	3997	2144	3559	1394	1382	8479
9.	2577	1297	2315	850	872	5334
10.	2842	1217	2609	751	816	5393
11.	2310	1202	2102	719	648	4671
12.	5762	3132	5229	1984	1851	12,196
	29,996	15,012	27,107	8973	9046	60,138

Resumé général de la Dépense effectuée par les Bureaux de Charité pour les Secours à Domicile.	
Designation des Secours.	Sommes.
Ordinaires en argent,	385,634 63
Aux vieillards, aveugles, et grands infirmes,	177,363 0
Remplacement d'hôpital,	745 50
Mères nour. rem. de farine	40,812 0
Frais de vaccination,	7018 75
Aux écoles de charité,	74,457 0
En nature, pain et farine,	364,705 23
Secours extraordinaires,	52,066 72
Frais de bureau, appoint. et loyer de maisons,	93,997 77
Legs et intérêt de legs,	54,280 45
Total,	1,251,081 03

* It is necessary to remark, that many individuals in the course of the same year receive assistance from several sources; they may have been in an hospital at one time, and at another receiving aid from the Bureaux of Charity. There is an error, then, in supposing that the general list made out gives a correct account of the total number of indigents; it is always more than the real number.

It may also be observed, that the term *indigens* by no means deserves to be translated paupers. The pauper-population, strictly so denominated, does not include those who, from rare or extraordinary circumstances, participate for a short period in the charity of the public; it ought rigorously to be applied

may be divided into four classes, provisions, clothing, medicines, and fuel. The value in money of the quantity of each of these distributed in the course of the year 1824 is stated in the following table, as well as the proportion for each individual assisted :—

	Sum total. francs.	By family. fr.	c.	By head. fr.	c.
1*st class*, Provisions,	465,585	23	25	11	61
2*d class*, Clothing,	135,952	6	80	3	39
3*d class*, Fuel,	39,436	1	97	0	98
4*th class*, Medicines,	20,774	2	55	1	27
	661,749	34	57	17	25

The assistance given in money for the same year was :—

	Francs.
1. To the aged, the blind, and the infirm,	171,549
2. To nurses in sickness,	526
3. To vaccinated children,	6867
4. Extraordinary relief,	80,939
5. Donations and legacies having a fixed purpose,	16,525
	276,407

only to those who habitually require that assistance. In the reports of the General Council, however, the *indigens* comprehend every class; their number, therefore, must not be supposed an indication of the number of actual paupers.

The expense of maintaining the *Maisons de Secours* was as follows, . . 143,306
The expense of maintaining gratis schools, 122,742
Expense of administration, . . 61,768
Extra expenses, . . . 13,201
Making in all, a total expense of 1,335,199 francs (£53,408.)
To which may be added the expense of baths for the poor,* . . . 2296

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* The number of baths given to the poor in Paris is very great. In the Charité and St Louis the bathing establishment is most complete; and in the latter the Council-General have united every species of bath, whether medicinal or otherwise, that is likely to be required.

The number of baths, douches, or fumigations delivered at St Louis to out-door patients, has increased, since 1816, from 16,330 to 127,752 a-year; the total number for 10 years was 776,697, and the detail for the year 1822 as follows:—

Baths,	Simple,	40,083	97,234
	Sulphureous,	6792	
	Alkaline,	2800	
	Vapour,	47,559	
Douches,	Simple,	48	3240
	Sulphureous,	28	
	Alkaline,	24	
	Ascending,	234	
	Vapour,	2906	
Fumigations,	Sulphureous,	10,306	27,258
	Mercurial,	390	
	Aromatic,	16,286	
	Alcoholic,	276	
		Total,	127,732

In the Charité, about 18,000 baths and fumigations were given during the year. These were as follows:—

Etablissement de Filature, . .	62,965
A sum put at the disposal of the minister of the interior, . . .	36,000
A sum put at the disposal of the prefect of the Seine, . .	9000

Making a grand total of 1,445,461 fr. (£57,818;) which sum, partitioned among 60,000 persons, gives about 24 francs a-head, or very nearly one pound sterling.

The trifling amount of this sum must create astonishment. The most wretched of human beings could not be maintained on it; and looking forward to this, the poor are excited to industry and foresight. Had they, on the contrary, the certain prospect of full and ample provision as paupers, the springs of industry would be injured, and the number of persons existing on the charity of the public greatly increased. But here no one can calculate upon even a sufficiency to procure the most ordinary necessaries of life in case of indigence; and this acts as a powerful check against the multiplication of paupers. Still it must be allowed, that the poor of Paris are not supported solely by the public administration; private charity assists in this

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Baths,	Sulphureous fumigations,	68
	Simple, . . .	6766
	Vapour, . .	4477
	Barrège, . .	5887
	Total,	17,198

duty, and societies and individuals vie with each other in relieving the wants and sufferings of their fellow-citizens. Of these the most celebrated and most widely-extended in its influence, is the Philanthropic Society, of which a particular account will be afterwards given. Yet, even with every addition of private charity, the poor of the capital are kept wonderfully out of sight, and at a singularly small expense.

The system of Secours à Domicile, adopted in Paris, extends more or less throughout the kingdom; the different bureaux of charity in the various communes are charged with their distribution; but the regularity observed in the capital and principal towns is not to be looked for everywhere. When established on a proper footing, this institution has always been attended with advantage. When the funds of a commune are thus conjoined, or, as the French would term it, *centralised*, the wants of the poor are all referred to a common point; and such being the case, the strictness, caution, and severity necessary in their distribution can be easily and efficaciously put in practice.

The establishment of Bureaux de Bienfaisance is extending rapidly through the country, and will, in the course of some years, be gradually improved where the system is deficient. They are not as yet universal; for, in such an extent of territory as France presents, there has not yet been time. Many communes want them, and many that have been unable to raise funds sufficient to support them, have been

from time to time assisted by the minister of the interior. The mode of distribution, and the nature of the objects distributed, of course vary according to the localities. There exist, for example, between the different communes, very marked shades of difference in the nature of the misery which it is the object to alleviate. The details must consequently differ, and the distribution which might answer in one commune be totally inapplicable to another.

To show the good results that may be expected throughout the kingdom from the universal adoption of this system, the following account of the state of the charitable administration in the town of Niort, as described by M. Dupin, will not be uninteresting: —Niort is a small town of 15 or 16,000 inhabitants; since 1802, not a single beggar has been seen in it, and this happy result has been obtained by the judicious zeal and attention of the administrators of charity. The Bureau de Bienfaisance divides the town into four sections, to each of which are attached a commissary, a baker, and an officier de santé. Two apothecaries and one butcher perform the service of the four sections. The bureau visits all the indigent families in the town; it ascertains the number of individuals composing them, their age, and their means of subsistence. It makes itself acquainted with the value of the labour of the head of each family, calculates how far that is sufficient to its maintenance, takes a note of the deficit, and makes it up to the standard it lays down. No healthy person in a state of idleness is assisted by the bureau; it says

to the poor, "Work and you will gain your livelihood,—if you fail in procuring it, we will find it for you; but if you consume your time in idleness, your wages in debauchery, you will get no assistance; if you beg, you will be imprisoned." If a labourer is charged with the support of aged and infirm parents, or with young children, and cannot with the produce of his labour support them, the bureau comes to his aid; but only to make up the difference which it judges to exist between the resources and exigencies of the family. The relief given is moderate; the bureau acts the part of a parent or guardian, who, by constant attention, forces the people to virtue by means of occupation. The indigents are divided into two classes, healthy and infirm: the assistance given to the former consists of bread of second quality. During the most rigorous months of the winter, 5 centimes (equal to one halfpenny) are added to each kilogramme of bread. The sick are treated at their homes by the surgeons of the bureau, and are supplied with bread, meat, soup, and medicines. The distribution is made as follows:—Each family receives a numbered ticket, of which a duplicate remains at the bureau; on this are inscribed the name of its head, and the assistance deemed necessary for him. To this ticket is added a card (*bon,*) setting forth the quantity and quality of the articles allowed, which is presented to the baker or butcher of the establishment. The bread is distributed once a-week, but in the different sections on different days; it is baked the evening be-

fore, and after its quality has been proved by the commissary, it is distributed so quickly as not to occasion more than the loss of half an hour's time to the poor. The person's ticket is then again taken to the bureau; and, if it be deemed necessary, another *bon* or card is given for the next distribution; and this goes on till the bureau deems it proper to augment, diminish, or refuse its assistance, according to the constant information it takes of the increasing or diminishing wants of each family. The white bread and meat are distributed twice a-week to the sick in the same manner. The medicines are given on the prescription of the officiers de santé of the quarter; and gratis baths are also given, on an order of a member of the bureau.'

'New-born children are put to nurse at the expense of the administration, when the mother's health or occupation does not allow of her suckling her child. It also causes them to be vaccinated; sends them to school, and afterwards apprentices them to some trade consistent with their strength and constitution. It is not deemed sufficient to comfort existing misery; pauperism must be extirpated from its root; and to do this properly, the young race must be removed from the view of that laziness, the example of which would necessarily in the end lead them to ruin.

All the good done by this bureau is at a trifling expense, which will appear from the following statement for the year 1812, when the price of provisions was very high, and when distress and diffi-

culty in consequence were more pressing than usual:

Bread (2d qual.)	75,906 kil.	31,549 fr.
Relief in money,	. .	7221
Paid to nurses,	. .	1198
Clothes and tools to apprentices,		208
Printing of tickets and expenses of bureau,	. . .	19
Total for healthy paupers,		40,195

The number assisted was 1557, or about one-tenth of the total population, composing 519 families, and the expense of each individual relieved was seven centimes, or about three farthings English a-day. In ordinary years the poor do not form more than one-fifteenth of the population, and the maintenance of each does not cost much more than four centimes, or less than one halfpenny English a-day.

The number of infirm poor was about 50 a-month; the relief given consisted of—

White bread,	2509 kil. .	1153 fr.
Meat,	1591 .	1114
Medicines,	. . .	1579
Linens for bandages, &c.	.	614
Salary of four *officiers de santé*,	.	400
		4860

The expense of each individual, therefore, treated at his home was no more than 27 centimes, a little more than twopence halfpenny English, and in ordinary years would not have been more than 18 centimes.

It will be unnecessary to continue the account of the establishments for the relief of the poor in the other towns of France. It may, however, be remarked that, in some, parallel establishments existed previous to the Revolution, and many of them were endowed with considerable revenues. At Marseilles the Bureau de Bienfaisance was originally known by the name of the *Administration Centrale de Secours Publics.** The principal of the old institutions which it replaced was named *La Grande Miséricorde,* and was founded in 1578 by an association of pious laics, who visited the sick at their own homes. Louis XIV. gave it letters patent, and it received a bull from Pope Benedict XIII. Its revenues amounted to 250,000 francs, and were confiscated during the Revolution. In Strasbourg the Bureau de Bienfaisance is established in what

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* The revenues of this establishment, in the year 1822, were 132,388 francs, the expenditure 132,350. The revenues, in 1823, were 135,634, the expenditure 135,495; in 1824 the revenues were 126,269, the expenditure 129,264. Assistance is given to about 3000 poor families.

In the town of Aix the receipts of the Bureau de Bienfaisance average about 40,000 francs.—*Stat. du Dep. des Bouches du Rhone.*

was formerly the *Aumonerie de St Marc.* It assists annually about 3000 poor families; the quantity of bread at present annually distributed is about 240,000 kilogrammes;* and about 700 persons get pecuniary relief at the rate of from one to four francs a-month. Beneficial as this establishment is, however, it is not able to do good to the extent of the wishes of those connected with it. It is not so well provided for as the original institution was. The Aumonerie of St Marc was founded as far back as the year 1523; its wealth was successively increased by the gifts of the citizens and other sources. Like many other institutions, its revenues were confiscated during the Revolution, and the subsequent compensation made in assignats was of course of little value.

The law of the 23d Messidor, an. 2, (11th July, 1794,) which sanctioned the sale of hospital-possessions, applied equally to all other establishments of charity, and in consequence the revenues of the institutions just spoken of were alienated. The law of the 15th Vendemiaire, an. 5, (16th October, 1796,) which restored to hospitals the enjoyment of the possessions due to them by the public treasury, and by private individuals, was rendered applicable to them also by the law of 20 Ventose, an. 5, (10th March, 1797.) By these laws the possessions not

* This bread is composed of two-thirds of wheat and one-third of oats.

yet alienated were secured to them, and the manner of replacing those by that time in the public treasury was considered. The various provisions of these laws, however, were of little benefit; and the charitable administrations, like private individuals, were in the greater proportion of cases reduced to bankruptcy.

There is in France no direct tax or contribution for the support of the poor.* The landed proprietors are not called upon by any law to provide for the poor of their commune. If the commune does not possess any revenue or any resource to meet the expenses of the bureaux of charity, the prefects are called upon to provide for that expense by local measures. Some communes, and particularly those containing large towns, possess revenues of some description either in land or funded property. The greater number by far, however, have none, and are obliged to provide for their poor by means which are extremely variable and susceptible of a constant fluctuation from incidental circumstances. The sources to which all communes can more or less apply are the places of public resort or amusement, which are taxed to a certain amount, the legacies or donations of pious individuals, and collections made in private houses, in churches, and pub-

* Previous to the Revolution, the *Grand Bureau des Pauvres* in Paris possessed the right of raising an annual tax upon the inhabitants. This right the Royal Council no longer possesses.

lic establishments of various kinds. But the funds from these sources do not in most cases cover the expense, and the municipalities are obliged to have recourse to other means to relieve their poor. By a law of an. 7, it was decreed, that provisionally the sums necessary to complete the funds required for the maintenance of the civil hospitals and distribution des secours à domicile should be at the charge of the cantons of the republic in which these establishments are situated, and should form in consequence part of the municipal expenses in the cantons composed of several communes, and of the municipal and communal expenses conjoined where the commune formed of itself a canton. In agreement with this law, the municipal and central authorities were to endeavour to ascertain the sums required, which were to be raised without exceeding the maximum laid down by the ordonnance. In the course of the following year the communal administration was formed, and the establishments of charity were placed directly under the superintendence of the municipalities of communes instead of cantons.* A law of the same year says, that there shall be established *Octrois Municipaux et de Bienfaisance* on the articles of local consump-

* Municipalities are required to look after "les secours à la pauvreté et au malheur, et pour multiplier ces secours; encourager les fondations; veiller à la bonne administration des hospices et autres établissemens de bienfaisance et de charité; surveiller les vagabonds et reprimer la mendicité.

tion in the towns in which the hospital-establishments have not revenues sufficient to meet their expenditure.* They were established, however, not merely for this purpose; for those communes having no hospices, or having sufficient revenues to maintain them, still might require an *octroi* to cover its municipal and communal expenses. Communes vary very much in the nature and value of their revenues; some are so wealthy as not to require to have recourse to what are termed *centimes additionels*. The wealthiest are those in possession of forest-lands, which in some cases not only pay all communal expenses, but allow the accumulation of a fund of reserve, (*quart de reserve.*)

Octrois, then, or offices of excise, were established to defray the expenses of such communes as are deficient in revenues. The necessity of their establishment must be deliberated on by the municipal council, and also by the prefect; who, if they find that the budget shows the ordinary revenue to be inadequate to the ordinary expenses, may propose the *octroi*. The deliberations are sent by the mayors to the sous-prefects, by them to be transmitted to the prefect, who lays them, with his own opinion, before the minister of the interior, upon whose ap-

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* *Loi*, an. viii. 5 Ventose.

Art. 1*er*. Il sera établi des Octrois Municipaux et de Bienfaisance sur les objets de consommation locale dans les villes dont les hospices civils n'ont pas de revenus suffisans pour leur besoins.

proval and authority the *octroi* is established. The regulations connected with it must be transmitted through the prefect to the *directeur-général des impositions indirectes*, to be laid before the minister of finance. Any changes in these regulations can only be made by his authority.

The *octroi* can only be raised on articles for the consumption of the inhabitants of the commune in which it is proposed, and on the following items :—

1. Boissons et liquides.
2. Comestibles.
3. Combustibles.
4. Fourrages.
5. Matériaux.

Any of these articles destined for the service of the *Ponts et Chaussées* are excepted from duty.

It is in this way that the local expenses of the communes of the kingdom are in great measure met, and the poor, where it is absolutely necessary, maintained. It must be allowed, that, in France, charity is by no means a rare virtue; and could a statement be procured of all that is given or bequeathed to support and relieve the poor, the sum would be enormous. Of small donations, and legacies below 15 or 20 pounds, it is impossible to obtain any account, as they require no royal ordonnance to ratify the acceptance of them. Common everyday charity, in like manner, it is impossible to estimate. The amount from these two sources, therefore, in all pro-

bability the most productive, cannot be ascertained. All larger sums, however, whether given as donations, or bequeathed as legacies, as they require an express royal ordonnance to warrant their acceptance, can be calculated. The fifth volume of the *Bulletin des Sciences Géographiques* of M. de Ferussac states, that in the course of the 22 years, from 1802 to 1823 inclusive, 9664 persons have given or bequeathed to the charitable establishments of France 20,000,000 francs (£800,000) in money; 4,500,000 (£180,000) in funded property; and 517,000 francs (£20,680) in rents. In the same period of time, 4472 individuals have given or bequeathed to the clergy 4,000,000 (£160,000) in money; 2,400,000 fr. (£96,000) in funded property; and 235,000 fr. (£9400) in rents.

Charity, then, is not a rare virtue in France,—alms are not awanting. They are even at times in some places too abundant; and, if there be a reproach in the system, it lies in the improper distribution of them.*

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* Whilst speaking of individual charity, we take this opportunity of noticing what might be termed an omission in a former part of the work. When treating of hospitals, and wards for convalescents, mention should have been made of the magnificent legacy of M. le Baron Auget de Montyon, for the temporary relief of convalescent patients dismissed from the public hospitals. With their constitution shaken, and their bodily powers impaired, persons in this condition are in general obliged to commence labouring for their subsistence before their health has been altogether restored. The consequence not unfrequently is, a relapse of their original

In extraordinary cases of calamity throughout the country, the government comes forward more directly; but these cases rarely happen. France is

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malady, or an attack of some other disease of debility springing from it. M. de Montyon, impressed with the frequency of such occurrences, left, among other charitable legacies, a sum of not less than 232,687 francs (L.9308) a-year, solely to relieve patients dismissed from the public hospitals in a state of convalescence.

According to the regulations adopted by the General Hospital-Council for the proper management of this fund, every person, upon quitting an hospital (the Maisons de Santé, Venereal Hospital, and Hôpital des Enfans Malades excepted,) if he demand it, receives a certain assistance in provisions and money to the amount of three francs. Farther assistance he may receive, to the amount of 25 francs, through the Bureaux de Charité; but beyond this sum a special order of the General Council is necessary. The fund has now been in activity for three or four years, and the good done by it is inappreciable. We give the following statement of its application in the eleventh arrondissement on the authority of M. Degerando.

This arrondissement contains a total population of 51,766 individuals, and an indigent population of 2080 hearths, and 4091 individuals. 1600 convalescent patients, upon quitting the public hospitals, reported their domicile in the eleventh arrondissement. Of these, 582 participated in the benefits of the Montyon legacy.

The assistance given amounted,

In kind, to the value of	8457 fr.	42 c.
In money,	3217	23
	11,647	65
Average per head,	20	03

differently situated from England in this respect, and the great distress that at times overtakes the poor in Great Britain seldom affects the poor of France. A momentary stagnation of trade in the one country brings misery upon thousands and hundreds of thousands of individuals, and the manner in which the population is agglomerated in particular districts increases the evil tenfold. In France the population is eminently agricultural, is widely spread over a rich and not too populous country, and is seldom gathered together in such overwhelming masses as must always be the case in a manufacturing and commercial country. There must, in consequence, be much fewer variations in the ordinary state of the circumstances of the country, fewer great and overwhelming calamities, fewer persons dependent upon the fluctuations of trade and commerce. Still in some parts of the kingdom similar effects are at times produced to what are experienced in England, though in a slighter de-

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The bread furnished averaged, per head, 3 kilogrammes,—the meat, 2 kilogrammes,—the clothing about 10 fr. 20 c.

The money was principally applied in acquitting small debts, particularly house-rents, in redeeming goods pledged in the Mont-de-Piété, in buying tools and utensils, and in paying for the nourishment of such workmen as were yet unable to earn their own livelihood.

This short statement will suffice to show the advantages of such a charity; in fact, it would be difficult to point out any branch of charity so free from fault in every respect, and so worthy of being imitated.

gree. The neighbourhood of Lyons, Colmar, Rouen, and other large towns, in which manufactures are extensive, is often afflicted with temporary misery from a languor in the sale of their goods. The poor, therefore, at one time may be more numerous than at another. More generally, too, the poor of the kingdom at large are liable to be increased from bad harvests and untoward seasons, and, individually or locally, by accidents of the weather, such as hurricanes, hail-storms, inundations, or by fires and other disasters. The increase of the poor from these causes is not calculated in the budgets of the communes. Being produced by extraordinary causes, they must be relieved by extraordinary means. The budgets of departments, then, in different years exhibit different sums for extraordinary assistance of various sorts. From the produce of the gaming-houses, also, 200,000 fr. a-year are reserved for relief, to be distributed according to circumstances, and 900,000 fr. for assistance to inhabitants of the colonies. By a financial law, some additional centimes are annually imposed, of which a portion is put at the disposal of the minister of the interior, to give assistance in cases of loss from storms, fires, hail, inundations, and other disasters.

The most likely cause of an augmentation in the general number of the poor is a sudden increase in the value of the necessaries of life. There is no fixed measure adopted by law to meet such exigencies, no regulations to direct administrations and

municipalities how to act. The remedy is not thought of till the misfortune arrives. The year 1812 was a most distressing one. In its commencement many departments suffered from scarcity; and others, which might have assisted them, were not in a state to do so; for the prospect of harvest was too unpropitious to allow them to rely upon their present plenty, or render it safe to diminish their actual stock. A decree, therefore, ordered, that, from the 1st of April to the 1st of September, there should be distributed daily, throughout the different cantons, two millions of portions of cheap soups, or *soupes à la Rumford*, as they were termed.* The expense was defrayed by local imposts, and by loans

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* The supply of flour laid up in the granaries of the capital enables the administration to keep down the price of bread to the poorer classes of the inhabitants. This is attended with excellent results; and, in severe seasons, the misery arising from the dearness of this most necessary article of life is in great measure avoided. The present year affords a strong instance of what the administration is enabled to do to relieve the indigent on occasion of a scarcity. On the 1st of December, 1828, the price of bread was fixed at 19 sous 2 liards; upon which the following official notice was published:—

"The rise compels the town of Paris to make use of the supplies which it has had so long in reserve for that period when the price exceeds the ordinary resources of some classes of the inhabitants. The supplies at present amount to, 1st, 25,000 sacks of flour in the granaries; 2d, 146,000 *quintaux métriques*, equal to 68,000 sacks of flour; making together 93,000 sacks. To which must be added, 12,000 sacks in the guarantee-dépôt of the bakers. The whole, therefore, immediately disposable

at the charge of the towns. According to M. Dupin, the people found these soups very bad, and

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is 105,000 sacks, besides the 50,000 sacks which the bakers are obliged to keep in their own stores.

The existence of such a large reserve, which might at any instant be brought to market, is sufficient to prevent uneasiness, and checks the designs of avarice without discouraging proper commercial undertakings. In unfavourable years, the price of bread sometimes rises above 20 sous for four pounds. At this price the administration has resolved to open the granaries, and lowering it then to 16 sous, which will supply at that price such of the inhabitants as shall stand in need of this assistance. The government is bound to assist the unfortunate, and it will first attend to them. 70,000 persons, whose names are inscribed in the Bureaux de Charité, have already acquired a right to this care. Measures are taken to organize in each quarter committees of benevolence, composed of manufacturers and others, who will equitably decide on the claims of the poor, according as they have children and are deprived of work. From the 15th December the reserve will be sent to market, and from that date the individuals inscribed in the Bureaux de Charité will receive billets, by means of which they will pay no more for their bread than 16 sous the 4 pounds. Generally the distributions of winter do not commence till the month of December. This year they begin a month earlier, and the relief of bread and money has been increased one-third. Funds have been provided, that, during the months of December, January, February, and March, 1067 sacks of flour each month shall be distributed in place of 711, and that soup shall be distributed to a greater number of persons. The working classes will receive the most useful assistance,—that of employment. The administration of the town will not suspend any of the works during winter which it has begun, and it will begin some new works, in which none shall be employed but workmen of Paris.—*Journal des Debats*,—*Courier*, *December* 5, 1828.

they could not well be otherwise, as they wanted the necessary ingredients to make them good. All the dried vegetables had been converted into flour, which was adulterated by intermixture with wheaten flour, owing to the fraud of the millers employed to grind it. The potatoes were ill-managed, and were in a growing state; green vegetables were too dear, and the price of each portion of soup, as fixed by government, was not to exceed $7\frac{1}{2}$ centimes, or about three farthings English money. In the country communes there was great difficulty in properly distributing these soups. To place apparatuses for making them in every small village would have been attended with enormous expense, and soon have exceeded the means allotted. Bringing the poor to a great distance, therefore, to receive their rations, was encouraging idleness, and taking the industrious from the little occupation they still might have. In many places, to avoid such inconveniences, it was proposed to distribute bread, to the quantity of two hectogrammes, or a little more, (rather more than seven ounces,) according to the local prices; so that the value should not exceed the maximum of $7\frac{3}{4}$ centimes allowed by government.

At present, the cheap soups, which form a branch of charity of very universal adoption, are made of much better materials, and are extensively distributed in many parts of the country gratis, or sometimes at a very low price, so as to maintain amongst the poor a spirit of independence, which may induce them to purchase their humble food. The compo-

sition of these soups will be afterwards stated in speaking of one or two charitable institutions unconnected with the great public system hitherto described.*

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* Though connected with misfortune more than poverty, we may yet notice, as a branch of public charity, the establishment of apparatuses for recalling to life individuals who have been drowned or suffocated. In France much attention is paid to this. In Paris and its environs, and principally on the banks of the Seine, there are 50 dépôts of this description; in all the principal provincial towns we also find them. In the capital, the cases of submersion amounted, in 1818, to 283; in 1819, to 281; in 1820, to 260, and in 1821 to 309. Out of the 309 there were 75 restored to life; and as there were only 121 individuals who had remained less than twelve hours in the water, beyond which time recovery is accounted impossible, the proportion of success to non-success was 75 to 131, or about 5 to 8.—*Vide* Rapport Général sur les Travaux du Conseil de Salubrité.

CHAPTER XIII.

PRIVATE ASSOCIATIONS FOR THE RELIEF OF THE POOR.—SOCIETÉS DE PRÉVOYANCE ET DE SECOURS MUTUELS.—SAVINGS BANKS.—PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

AFTER considering the great public charities of a country, the attention naturally turns to the consideration of those which, being more private, are less generally known. At every epoch of history there have existed illustrious persons who have used the influence of their names and fortunes to alleviate the sufferings of poverty and distress, and many of the noblest institutions of this country as well as of others have been due to the munificence and charity of individuals. France was never deficient in this point at any period of her history; but the numerous and wonderful events attendant upon and subsequent to the Revolution have rendered the feelings which prompt acts of individual charity more powerful and more general. All ranks of the community now share in the impulse; and throughout the whole extent of the kingdom a spirit may be traced which is acting beneficially in increasing the comforts and bettering the general condition of the great body of the

people. Charity in general has been put upon a better footing, public instruction has been organized upon a juster system; the means of education have been more freely and more equally scattered over the country, and the reproach can no longer be made with such justice, as in former days, that the comforts of the people at large are sacrificed to increase those of the capital and of the principal towns. France and England, so long rivals in other respects, continue at the present time to be rivals in their endeavours to promote the good of humanity; and while they are so, it must be a matter of pleasure and satisfaction to see so little illiberality on either side. The French nation does not hesitate frankly to allow the superiority of England in every thing connected with private charity, and this superiority it is endeavouring to imitate with much success. "Quelques multipliées que sont en France les institutions religieuses et charitables, elles le sont encore plus en Angleterre; non seulement chacune d'elles compte au nombre de ses membres les personnages les plus eminens et les plus considerés de la nation,"* &c. are the words held by one Frenchman; while another, in his introduction to an account of the charitable institutions of London, observes, that English charity has made prodigious strides; has extended its protection to every unfortunate; its relief to every

* *Vid.* Rapports de la Société Philanthropique de Paris, 1824,

social injury; has diffused everywhere its rich benefits, and its happy and powerful influence has penetrated into the civilized nations of the earth, and even to the extremities of Russia, India, and Africa. England may be called the parent of European charity.* Conscious of her inferiority, France, even before the Revolution, was beginning to feel the necessity of a more comprehensive and better-regulated system of charity, and one of the most useful institutions the capital now possesses was founded in the year 1780 under the protection of Louis XVI. This, which is named the Philanthropic Society, is modelled upon a plan deserving of much praise. Destroyed at the period of the Revolution, it again arose, when the government became settled, to its just celebrity, and at present exerts a most powerful moral influence not only over the capital, but over the country at large. There is no institution in England that bears a close analogy to it; none which embraces so wide and various a range of beneficence, and presents at the same time such unity of plan.

The wider the range of any institution, whether charitable or otherwise, if well conducted, the more efficient will it prove; for in proportion to its extension will be its moral influence, and such influence goes much farther in benefiting the community than may generally be supposed.

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* *Vid.* Tableau des Sociétés, &c. de la Ville de Londres, par Degerando.

The Philanthropic Society of Paris possesses this advantage. Its attention is directed towards a variety of points; its charity is confined not merely to the distribution of relief to the indigent, but it establishes and maintains dispensaries, and supports schools for the instruction of children of the poorer classes of the people. From the mode of its organization it is enabled to do all this with advantage, and the extension it has now received may almost entitle it to the rank of a public institution, instead of that of an association of private individuals. It forms a central point to which the other private charitable institutions of the capital and of the country look; and the manner in which its details are conducted, its affairs managed, and its directors chosen, enables it to distribute charity where it is wanted only, and to prevent the abuse of that charity. The direction of its affairs is intrusted to a committee of 50 members, one-third of whom are renewed every year, and its attention is directed not so much to give pecuniary aid, as to supply the poor with clothing, provisions, and medical relief, to extend the blessings of education to their children, and to assist and encourage the numerous minor societies that are formed for the promotion of industry, labour, and mutual aid, in case of misfortune or old age.

In its dispensaries there are rooms for consultations, vaccinations, and the minor operations of surgery. The annual subscription is 30 francs, and an individual may take as many of these annual

subscriptions as his fortune may allow. For each he receives 100 orders for economical soups, and a like number of dispensary-tickets; each of the former procures a meal to a poor man; each of the latter, medical, surgical, or pharmaceutical assistance in case of malady.

The distribution of economical soups is the principal object of this society; and this distribution is not merely gratis; these soups are also made for sale. Their preparation differs in different places, and many experiments have been made to ascertain how far they are nutritious, and to what extent economy may with propriety be carried in their preparation. M. Appert, in his establishment at the Hopital des Quinze-Vingts for the preservation of provisions, makes cakes of gelatine of meat and vegetables for the use of the poor, which are very nourishing and savoury. Their price is six francs the kilogramme, (about two shillings and threepence a pound,) which is equivalent to sixteen kilogrammes (about 35 lbs.) of meat, being a saving of about one-half. The Brothers Robert at Gros-Caillou prepare from bones a gelatine, of which one ounce is deemed equivalent to one pound and a half of meat, and the price of which is no more than 4 fr. 80 cent. the kilo.

M. Ternaux has formed with potato-flour a species of polenta in a dry form for making soup. It will keep for several years, is contained in small bulk, and forms a healthy and nourishing soup. Its only drawback is its insipidity, which, however,

it is not difficult to remedy. A packet of this polenta costs about 75 cent. (7½d. English,) and serves for eight soups. The same substance is prepared in various ways to resemble flour, vermicelli, &c. and costs 55, 40, 45 cent. the pound.

These articles, however, have not as yet come into very general use. The following is the receipt for one description of soup made in considerable quantities for the poor, with a statement of the value of the ingredients :—

			Fr.	Cent
Flour of French beans, pease, or lentils,	4	boisseaux,	10	0
Potatoes,	12	id.	5	30
French beans,	4	id.	8	0
Lentils,	1	id.	2	50
Fat, butter, or hog's-lard,	1½	kil.	3	0
Herbs, onions, carrots, cabbage,	20	id.	2	0
Salt,	6	id.	1	80
Bread cut in morsels and dried in a furnace,	18	id.	7	20
Water,	15	voies,	1	50
Fire-wood,			2	0
Manipulation estimated at			2	0
		Total,	45	30

The above quantities are to furnish 600 rations

of soup; each ration thus costs between 7 and 8 centimes, or about three farthings English.

Of soups somewhat of this description, but composed of rather more expensive materials, the Philanthropic Society has distributed an immense quantity. The number of portions from 1799 to 1824 was no less than 16,650,997, and the mean price of each portion was about 16 centimes, or rather more than three halfpence English money: had they all been given gratis, this number must have cost the Society no less a sum than 2,664,159 francs (£106,566.)

In many other towns of France, establishments similar to those of the Philanthropic Society have been formed for making economical soups. In Strasburg, for instance, the Agricultural Society, in the year 1800, commenced the plan; and since then it has gone on improving and increasing. Each portion costs about 10 centimes, and it suffices for a repast to a stout man. A considerable quantity of barley is employed in making these soups in this town, much more than elsewhere. A few of the receipts are as follows:—

For 150 *Rations.*

Potatoes, . .	60 lbs.
Pease, . . .	11
Pearl-barley, .	10
Bread, . .	15
Bones, . .	25
Salt, . . .	3½

Onions, pot-herbs,	1 fr.	30 cent.
Wood,	0	80

The following receipts, which are cheaper than the above, are yet, on account of their flavour, preferred:—

Pea-Soup.—150 *Rations.*

Pease,	25 lbs.	
Bread,	15	
Salt,	3½	
Butter,	3	
Onions, celery,	1 fr.	2 cent.
Wood,	0	80

Lentil-Soup.—150 *Rations.*

Lentils,	41 lbs.	
Bread,	15	
Butter,	2½	
Salt,	3½	
Flour,	0 fr.	40 cent.
Onions,	1	0
Firewood,	0	80

It would appear from calculation, that, sold at the low price of two sous a ration, the establishment has a profit of 10 or 11 per cent. upon these soups.

At first economical soups were little thought of in France, but they have gradually, and as their composition was improved, gained ground in the

estimation of the people. The best evidence of this is, that about one-half of the soups distributed by the Philanthropic Society have been sold. Even in years when bread and vegetables have been particularly cheap, the heads of families have found it of advantage to purchase these soups, which is a sufficient proof of their quality being good. In Strasburg, the establishment, aware that, in improving the lot of the poor man, the necessity of labour should not be taken away from him, does not give his nourishment altogether gratis. It puts a price upon its soups, a great proportion of which, in consequence, are sold. They are given out in a building destined for the purpose, and are, in general, so well adapted for the support of the bodily system, that those who eat them in the distribution-room are rarely observed to add bread to their meal. Care is taken, in making them, to vary now and then their flavour, by the addition of some savoury substance, by which means satiety is prevented.

Among the charitable institutions that claim attention, dispensaries must not be overlooked; they form an integral part of the constitution of the Philanthropic Society, and have, since their formation, been productive of much benefit. First established in Great Britain, dispensaries soon spread over Europe, and they were successively introduced in Paris, Strasburg, Lyons, Marseille, Montpellier, Nantes, and other great towns in France, as well as in Geneva, Berlin, and other continental capitals and towns of importance. In most points they differ little in their con-

stitution from the dispensaries of England, except in being more systematic, and furnishing regular reports, which, in a statistical point of view, are highly valuable and interesting. The Philanthropic Society has six dispensaries in the capital. The *bureau* of each is composed of a commission of seven members of the Society, and the medical service is performed by one *titular* physician and surgeon, two *adjunct* physicians and surgeons, several apothecaries, and an agent. Every subscription of 30 francs to the Society gives the right of having, during the whole course of the year, one individual receiving assistance from one of the six dispensaries. Each subscriber receives a ticket, which he gives to the sick person, who presents it at the dispensary; upon his dismissal, this ticket is restored to its owner, who may then use it in favour of another person, and so on, till the year is finished, when it becomes necessary to renew the subscription, and receive a new ticket. The medical officers are nominated for four years, the *adjunct* physicians and surgeons alone are re-eligible. Every Monday and Thursday they are required to be at the bureau of their respective dispensaries from 12 till 2 o'clock, to give consultations. When the patients are confined at home, the medical attendants, upon notice being given them by the agent, are required to visit them. The ordinary physicians and surgeons receive each a salary of 600 francs (£25,) the élèves and agent 360 francs. The average expense of each patient is about 17 francs.

As already said, dispensaries now exist in many other towns of France, and it is probable that in time they will become as numerous as in England. It is unnecessary to say more concerning them, as they bear a close resemblance to those of Paris. The greater number of them publish annual reports, which give a good account of the medical constitution of the year, and are valuable as medico-statistical documents.

There exist in Paris, and also in the other great towns of France, many admirable associations of charity, the character of which might merit attention. In a work, however, like the present, it would be too minute to give an account of all the institutions in that kingdom remarkable for the excellence of their regulations, or for the peculiar nature of the relief they afford to the distressed. Since the period of the Revolution, it must be a matter of congratulation to every well-wisher of humanity, to see the rapid strides that have been taken in the administration of the funds of the poor, and the improvements, at the same time, in the mode of their distribution. It is more to the improvement of system, however, than to an increase of charitable feeling that this is due; and, perhaps, at this moment, so much money is not spent upon the poor as previous to the Revolution. But the distribution is better made, and the nature of real charity better understood than it used to be, both by the public administrations and by private individuals. The numerous associations that have been formed since

the commencement of the century show in their regulations how much this is the case, and, had the nature of the present work admitted of it, a more particular inquiry into a subject of such importance would not have been uninteresting. Although, however, it is not possible to enter upon so extensive a field, there is yet one private institution, which, from its extent and consequence, merits a short notice. This is the *Societé de la Charité Maternelle*, founded for the purpose of assisting poor females in childbed and while they suckle their infants. This Society existed previous to the Revolution, and was then patronized by the queen, who presided over it. At present the Dauphiness is president and protector. In Lyons, Marseille, Bordeaux, Rouen, Strasburg, Toulouse, Orleans, and other large towns of France, societies upon the same model and springing from the same source are established. The king gives an annual sum of 100,000 francs, to aid in the support of these various societies,—all of which are under the immediate protection of the Dauphiness. Of this sum, that of the capital receives 40,000 francs. Assistance and relief are given to females in a state of indigence, where they have lost their husbands during pregnancy, and have at least one child living; where they have a living child, and are burdened with an infirm or crippled husband; where, being infirm themselves, they have two living children; or, in fine, where they have more than two young children. The assistance given consists in defraying

the expenses attendant on delivery, in furnishing the infants linens, and in paying the sum of five francs monthly for the space of one year, with one or two other trifling allowances. The total sum allotted to each female is 100 francs. If the mother dies while suckling her infant, it is taken charge of by the Society. Those mothers who wish to partake of the benefit of the Society must make their application in the course of the last month of pregnancy. They must show their certificates of marriage, also certificates of indigence and good character, as also of the reality of the motives which have induced them to apply for assistance. The affairs of the Society are managed by a committee of forty-eight ladies of the highest rank and respectability, who meet twice a-month; and there are, in each arrondissement, physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, and midwives, specially attached to the institution, whose business it is to give their assistance, when called for by the members of the Society. The funds consist of the annual donation of the king, of legacies and donations of private individuals, and of a yearly subscription of 50 francs paid by each member. The number of unfortunate females who receive assistance is very considerable; and the whole country in some measure enjoys the benefits of a Society formed of the wives of the most illustrious and distinguished individuals of France.

Of the many other private charitable associations recognized by the law, which the limits of this

work will not allow us to notice, it may be said, that they complete the circle of charity which the public administration has traced out; and, in conclusion, it may also be remarked of both, that the feature most to be studied in their character is the small extent of pecuniary aid which they afford, and the consequent rare abuse of their benefits.*

But, before quitting this subject altogether, a few remarks are called for on a class of associations which, having increased greatly of late years in Paris, now constitute an important branch of public relief in the misfortunes incident to human life. These associations are denominated *Sociétés de Prévoyance*, or *de Secours Mutuels*, and resemble in many respects the Friendly Societies of Great Britain. Strictly speaking, they scarcely deserve the term of charitable institutions, yet still are so to a certain degree, as their object is to lend relief and assistance in misfortune and old age. By an accu-

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* The General Hospital-administration does not hesitate to give assistance to any private charities it may deem serviceable to the poor. Of course, such assistance is not given but with extreme caution. The *'arreté* of the Council-General says upon this head,—" Il ne sera donné, dans aucun cas, des secours à des associations de Bienfaisance qu'après qu'une commission spéciale aura vérifié sur les lieux l'état actuel de l'établissement, son organisation, sur quels moyens il est fondé, quel en a été le succès depuis sa fondation, et si la classe indigente de Paris a un intérêt direct ou indirect, tel qu'il soit convenable de prendre dans sa caisse pour soutenir cet établissement."

mulation in a common fund of the savings of daily labour, these societies are enabled to give aid to labourers and artisans belonging to their respective bodies when in a state of bodily disease, or in a temporary want of work. The number of societies of this description has increased rapidly. They have adopted regulations according to the notions of each, and their constitution may thus in some slight respects differ; but they have all succeeded in the object held forth at their first formation, and have invariably been attended with benefit to the community. They are in general established among persons following the same profession or trade, and a very small amount of annual, monthly, or weekly payments, enables them to do a great extent of good. To show what may be accomplished by such societies, it will be sufficient to mention what M. Grandin states, that in one society of this description connected with a large manufactory, where each of the members subscribed no more than two sous a-week, or less than 4s. 6d. a-year, no less than 212 individuals were relieved, and a house-rent paid, after which there remained a surplus fund of 1510 francs.

The general principle on which societies of mutual relief are formed is this. To become a member, it is necessary to pay a certain sum on admission, which sum varies, according to age, from 18 to 36 francs. After this, a monthly contribution, varying from one to three francs, is paid; in addition to which, certain penalties are levied, which

go to increase the capital. The assistance granted is an annual pension of 200 francs, to members who have attained the age of 65 years; 50 centimes a-day to infirm persons; two francs a-day to sick members for the first three months, and one franc for the next three, provided their complaint be not the consequence of debauchery. Dispensary-cards and soups are also distributed, and a sum of money is granted to defray the funeral expenses of deceased members. Widows are entitled to take the place of their husbands, and they continue to receive the pension, if they have attained the age of 70 years; otherwise, they or their children receive one sum of 100 or 200 francs. These societies are regulated in different ways, according to the ideas of their founders; but the general principle in all is the same, however the particular regulations may differ, or the amount of subscription and of relief vary.

Though in general the great proportion now existing in France are of recent establishment, still societies of this description are not altogether new. One of them dates its origin as far back as 1694, and, from 1760 to 1791, ten of them were established. The Philanthropic Society has assisted them much with its encouragement, not only by instruction how to proceed, but in some cases by money; and one of the greatest merits of this association has been, the extension and multiplication of these societies. Its reports for the year 1825 state the number of societies in Paris to be 184.

The number of members,	17,112
Funds,	1,124,000 fr.

It is calculated that they assist annually 400 aged and infirm persons, and give relief to 1600 sick, paying the former a yearly sum and the latter a daily sum, continued till they be again able to resume their labours. If the individual seized with malady is engaged in work for which he has been hired, his fellow-members in the society take care that during his absence his work shall not be neglected. It has been remarked, that those professions which are likely to produce more liberal ideas have given origin to the greater number of societies of this description; while, on the contrary, those whose profession or employment leads to a more sensual life have formed comparatively very few of them.

Besides the institutions just spoken of, *Caisses d'Epargnes*, or savings banks, are now spreading widely throughout France. That of Paris was founded in the year 1818, and has risen to a high state of prosperity. Since then, minor ones have been formed in several of the provinces. The *Caisse d'Epargnes* of the capital receives all sums, from 1 franc to 600; and the deposits bear interest whenever their value is 12 francs. The money is immediately employed in the purchase of government-stock; and when the sum belonging to any individual amounts to 50 francs at the purchase-

price of stock, the transfer is made in his own name.*

In calculating the progression of capital, with the increase of interest upon it, at the rate of 5 per cent., it will be found that 12 francs paid monthly, during the space of 10 years, will, at the close of that period, afford a capital of 1871 francs, and at the close of 30 years, a capital of 10,029 francs. A labourer who, from his youth, pays two francs a-month into this bank, will, at the end of 40 years, possess a capital of 3000 francs. With this sum he is sure of being able to find, at the age of 60, a comfortable retreat for his wife and himself, till the close of their existence, in one of the Maisons de Retraite, made mention of in a former part of this work.

In the year 1825, the Caisse d'Epargnes of Paris received 81,199 deposits, forming a sum of 3,625,985 francs (£145,040.) In the course of the preceding year the sum of 535,834 francs (£21,433,) was restored to the demand of 5836 individuals. The management of this institution is intrusted to M.M. Dellessert, Lafitte, and other gentlemen: it is situated in the Banque de France, No 5, Rue de la Vrillière. It is chiefly females who take advantage of it; which arises principally from the men being in general members of the societies of mutual aid just spoken of.

* The reports made to the States-General of Holland for 1824 and 25, by the Minister of the Interior, make mention of 47 Caisses d'Epargnes existing in that country, with 15,450 members, and a united capital of 2,426,477 francs.

The savings bank of Lyons was founded in 1822, and is also thriving. From the period of its foundation till December, 1825, it had received 462,156 francs belonging to 512 workmen,

312 servants,

70 persons employed in different offices,

68 persons yet in their minority,

66 small proprietors.

Total, 1028

In several manufacturing establishments of France small institutions of this description have been formed by the masters, for behoof of the families of their workmen. Instances of this are to be met with among the great manufactories of the department of the *Haut-Rhin.*

After the account which has been given in the preceding pages, of the means adopted in France for the support of the poor, it may naturally be asked, how far the regulations and institutions, in many respects so deserving of praise, have influenced the state of mendicity? Has that scourge disappeared from France since the re-establishment of order in its government and in its establishments of charity? This question, unfortunately, cannot be altogether answered in the affirmative. In spite of hospitals, hospices, charity work-houses, and bureaux of charity, beggars are still numerous in many parts of the kingdom. The Code Penal contains strict

laws against them, yet these remain without force; and, though precise and severe, are very rarely applied. In those cases in which they are applied, there seems to be hardship in the application, and the public are shocked to see an excess of severity on one hand and an excess of indulgence on the other.

The existing provisions of the Code Penal against mendicity are, that every person found begging in any district in which there exists an establishment organized for the purpose of preventing mendicity, shall be punished with an imprisonment of from three to six months, after which he shall be conducted to the Depôt de Mendicité. In those places where such establishments do not exist, the period of imprisonment shall be from one to three months. Any mendicant arrested beyond his own district shall be imprisoned for a period varying from six months to two years; also every mendicant using menaces, feigning disease, or begging in company with others. Every one arrested with arms, or with any implements of housebreaking, shall be imprisoned for a period varying from two to five years. Every vagrant and beggar in whose possession shall be found articles above a hundred francs in value, if he cannot satisfactorily explain how he obtained them, shall be sentenced to a term of imprisonment varying from six months to two years. Every vagrant and mendicant committing a crime which sentences him to hard labour, shall also be branded. All vagrants who have suffered the above penalties remain at the future disposal of government.

M. Foderé, in his article *Mendicité*, contained in the *Dictionnaire des Sciences Médicales*, complains loudly of the little good done by all the laws and edicts in existence, but rarely put in force, which are intended to repress this extension of vagrancy and mendicity. He makes these observations:— "Had any one accompanied me in 1818 to the streets of Lyons, and especially to Notre Dame de Fourvières, he would have beheld more than a hundred beggars, every one more disgusting than the other, feigning all sorts of diseases, and ranged in a line along the path leading to the sanctuary. At Marseille he would have seen similar lines of beggars in ascending to Notre Dame de la Garde; and, in short, he would have met with similar spectacles at the doors of the churches, and in the public promenades of the greater number of towns through which he might pass." But, in the year 1818, France had not recovered from her disasters. Many causes tended to produce the misery described by M. Foderé. Thousands of idle soldiers had been suddenly thrown upon the country; thousands who had been employed in manufactures connected with the supplies necessary to the army had been thrown out of their employment; manufactures and trade had not recovered their full impulse, and one or two disastrous harvests had produced general scarcity and distress.

Though the number of mendicants and vagrants at present existing throughout the country is still considerable, it must at the same time be allowed,

that they are no longer what they used to be in former times,—the stoutest, ablest, and idlest of the community; they are now in general the aged and infirm, oppressed with bodily infirmity. Beggary is no longer the profitable trade it once was; and, if it is yet a trade in those parts of the country in which the establishments of charity have not received their full development, it certainly has diminished elsewhere. In Paris, for example, to which beggars from every part of France were wont to resort, and in which, during the 17th century, their number was rated at 40,000, is now in a manner free from them, and those at times observed in the streets are no longer troublesome or importunate. Throughout the different communes of France the traveller meets with beggars, who annoy him with their tales of misery and distress; but the young and able-bodied seldom appear among them. There is undoubtedly a general decrease of mendicity in the kingdom; this is owing much to the increase of industry; the population is more active, more laborious, than in former times. Notwithstanding the great increase in that population, there is no increase in the number of persons demanding or obtaining public assistance; on the contrary, there seems to be a diminution. At least in the number of the young and healthy this is the case. The aged, the infirm, the lame, the blind, the impotent, still continue to beg, and in the face of the laws are tolerated on account of their infirmities; but even granting their number to be considerable, it must

be allowed, that it forms but a small part of that proportion of a community of 30 millions, which must, from the ordinary course of things, require aid and relief from the more wealthy.*

Before drawing this work to a close, there yet remains one highly-important subject, which it will be necessary to touch upon, as forming essentially a branch of public charity, though that can only be in a very cursory manner. This is the actual condition of the poorer classes of society with respect to elementary education. It must be confessed, however, that, on this, praise cannot be so liberally bestowed as on other branches of charity; there yet remains much to be done. It has been already mentioned, that the Bureaux de Charité in Paris maintain a number of gratis schools; the bureaux of many other large towns also do so; but the extent of these is but limited, and it cannot be

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* We are enabled, from the interesting statistical description of the *Departement des Bouches du Rhone,* to state exactly what is the number of actual mendicants in that district of country. There are in the department, at an average, 1065 domiciliated beggars, and 240 who wander about the country. Of these 1065 there are 528 lame. The number of domiciliated beggars, then, to the total population is about 1 : 300 individuals, or 1 : 65 families, and, including the 240 wandering beggars, as 1 : 50 families. We need scarcely add, that the character of the people in this department, and other circumstances connected with its situation, render it one in which the number of mendicants might have been expected to be great.

otherwise. It is only in the capital that they possess funds sufficient for the purpose; and, when the state of the more remote parts of the country is inquired into, we find they have it not in their power, even if they had the wish, to encourage the education of the peasantry. M. Dupin, while giving a flattering account of the progressive improvement of his country in every thing connected with commerce, manufacture, and science, is obliged to confess, that France has still immense efforts to make in the instruction of the people, to raise herself to a level with countries much inferior to her in many other respects. Upon this point she is yet inferior to Austria and to Ireland; she yet possesses in her territory, to use his own words, 14,000 *communes qui sont encore privées de maîtres d'école.*

But if the government or the community have been negligent in extending the full benefits of education widely and generally over the country, it must not be supposed that the progress of instruction has been altogether stationary. In the year 1817 the primary schools of France contained 856,712 scholars; in 1820 there were 1,116,777, an increase of 260,000 in the short space of three years.* Since that time the increase has certainly

* In the year 1816 the religious female Congregations of Charity taught in their schools 56,365 children; in 1827 they taught 120,600.—Vid. *Situation progressive des Forces de la France depuis* 1814, *par le Baron Charles Dupin.*

not followed the same ratio; but there is no just reason for supposing that there has been any diminution of numbers. On the contrary, in some parts at least, there has been an increase.

One of the most singular features of the present inquiry is the very unequal distribution of primary instruction throughout the kingdom. There are some departments in which the individuals attending primary schools form $\frac{1}{10}$th of the total population; there are departments in which they form $\frac{1}{20}$th; there are others in which they form $\frac{1}{229}$th. To what causes is a difference so enormous to be attributed, and how far does this difference depend on the extent of civilization? No apology will be necessary for quoting in this matter the highly-interesting paper, read at the opening of the *Cours Normal de Géométrie et de Mécanique appliquées aux Arts*, by M. Dupin, the substance of which he afterwards incorporated into his work, entitled *Forces Productives et Commerciales de la France*. It might naturally be supposed that that department in which instruction is given to $\frac{1}{10}$th of the population is the richest and most cultivated; that in which it is given to $\frac{1}{229}$th of the population the poorest and most uncivilized. But this is by no means the case. The inhabitants of the *Hautes Alpes* and *Hautes Pyrenées* are those among whom popular education is most universal, and that part of the country where it is least so lies in the centre of France, in a magnificent valley, watered by the finest river in the kingdom, and pos-

blessing a delightful climate,—the region of the vine, the mulberry, and the maize,—the garden of France,—the province of Touraine. Fertility and richness of soil and beauty of climate then have no influence; it is the moral energy of the people themselves. The struggles they have to endure with a rude and inclement nature rouse energies in them which strengthen their moral temperament as well as their physical powers.

M. Dupin draws a line from Geneva to St Malo, thus separating northern from southern France. To the north of this line there are 32 departments and 13,000,000 inhabitants; south of it, 54 departments and 18,000,000 inhabitants. The 13 millions of the north send to school 740,846 scholars; the 18 millions of the south no more than 375,931; popular instruction therefore is three times more extensive in the former than in the latter. We go on to point out the consequences of this inequality, as M. Dupin describes them. In the north of France, in despite of the rigour of climate, which prevents the cultivation of the olive, the orange, the lemon, and the caper, which with difficulty permits that of the mulberry and maize, and which does not allow the cultivation of the vine in Normandy, Picardy, Artois, Flandre, and Ardennes, the mass of population is, from its instruction, industry, and activity, enabled to pay from the soil an *impôt foncier* of 127,634,765 francs from a superficies of 18,692,191 *hectares*; while the 54 southern departments only pay

125,412,969 francs from a superficies of 34,841,235 *hectares.* For every million of *hectares,* then, the public treasury receives 6,820,000 francs from instructed and 3,599,700 from uninstructed France. Farther, the 32 northern departments pay into the treasury, *en patentes,* the sum of 15,274,456 francs; the southern 54 only 9,623,733 francs. The former, from July 1791 to 1825, have received 1689 *brevets d'invention;* the latter in the same space of time only 413. It is impossible for the most sceptical to look at the facts here adduced without being convinced of the real advantages of education to the lower classes of the community. There is no question here of theory; the facts brought forward are incontestable, and the only cause of regret is, that, when the advantages of instruction are so fully proved, so much yet remains to be done to render it universal over the kingdom. Out of 25 millions of adults, it is calculated that no more than 10 millions can read or write; 15 millions then have not acquired the most ordinary rudiments of education; 14 or 15 thousand communes yet want schoolmasters. Forty years ago 7 millions of Frenchmen could read; at present 12 millions can read. M. Dupin says, with energy, 26 millions ought to be able to read.

Still there has been no inconsiderable progress throughout the country, and we cannot find a surer proof of this than in the small work of M. le Comte de Daru. It is the increase in the number of publications that affords this proof; and, though it can-

not be said that the extent of education is to be altogether judged of by this, yet it is not easy to conceive the possibility of such an increase without supposing a very considerable augmentation in the number of readers, and, by a very natural effect, in the number of persons able to read.

The French press published of printed sheets, exclusive of periodicals,—

In 1814.	1815.	1820.	1825.	1826.
45,675,039	55,549,149	80,921,302	128,010,483	144,561,094

In a neighbouring country, and one which for a long while was equally a prey to the confusion arising from great political events, a much more satisfactory picture of the condition of the lower classes with respect to education is presented than in France. In the kingdom of the Netherlands instruction is distributed equally, and in proportion to the wishes of M. Dupin, and of every well-wisher of humanity; and it is impossible to read the details given by the Minister of Public Instruction to the States-General without feeling the highest degree of interest. His reports are neither showy nor deceitful, they are plain and simple statements of the condition of the country; there is no attempt at exaggeration or concealment, and an examination of them presents a picture of the most satisfactory kind. With a population not exceeding one-fifth of that of France, this country sends above 550,000 children to school. The least instructed

department of France sends $\frac{1}{268}$th of its population to school; the least instructed province of the Netherlands $\frac{1}{17}$th.*

But the efforts of the French government have not been exerted to attain to a superiority so desirable. Grants have been made of late years, but to a small extent, and nothing commensurate with the exigencies of the nation. In fact, they are so very trifling, compared to what may be accounted absolutely necessary, as to have the appearance rather of a private subscription than the contribution of a great government to the wants of its citizens.

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* The bulletin of M. de Ferussac gives the following curious table of the proportion of persons attending schools to the total population of the different countries of Europe:

	France, (1820,)	30,435,000	1,070,500	1 in 30
	Paris,	714,000	34,000	1 21
	England,	10,488,000	644,282	1 16
	Scotland,	1,865,000	176,303	1 10
	Ireland,	6,801,000	374,813	1 18
	Holland, (1812,)			1 12
Emp. of Austria.	Austria,	1,810,797	134,709	1 13
	Styria,	765,050	41,042	1 18
	Bohemia,	3,236,142	284,721	1 11
	Moravia and Silesia,	1,733,319	149,482	1 12
	Circle of Gratz,	286,000	32,000	1 9
	Prussia,	1,401,000	80,000	1 18
	Portugal,	3,130,000	39,000	1 80
	Poland,	3,585,804	45,920	1 78
	Russia,	40,067,000	42,712	1 954
	State of New York,			1 4

Vid. *Bull. des Sciences Géograph.* v. iv. p. 213.

We allude here, of course, only to schools for elementary instruction, and which alone can have any connexion with public charity. Government is more liberal in the higher branches of education. While to support the University of France, for the instruction of 15,000 *élèves* in the higher branches of science, between two and three millions annually are required, for the general elementary instruction of the country only 50,000 francs a-year were allotted. This sum, to be sure, was increased last year; still it is too trifling to merit consideration.

M. Dupin, as already mentioned, makes the number of male children attending primary schools in 1820 1,116,677,—a calculation, perhaps, rather high. The number of girls attending schools has been rated at 430,000; which is certainly rather above than below the truth. Supposing these numbers, however, to be correct, rather more than a million and a half of children receive instruction; but this must be accounted too high an average, as the proportion of children attending schools to the total population has seldom been given higher than 1 : 27 by Frenchmen who have written on the subject.

The Bureaux of Charity of the capital support at this moment 81 schools, frequented by 10,894 scholars of both sexes. They also maintain 26 female working-schools, containing 1026 apprentices. The total expense of all these for the year 1826 was 122,742 fr. (£4914). Independent of these schools, gratuitous education is given to 5 or 6000

children, in schools maintained by the city and by private societies and individuals. In Paris the total number of persons attending schools in the year 1820 was rated at about 35,000.

In the department *des Bouches du Rhone*, the total population of which is 303,322, the state of primary instruction is as follows, on the authority of the prefect's admirable statistical work, published a year or two ago:—

		No. of Schools.	No. of Teachers.	No. of Scholars.
Boys,	Christian schools,	15	45	3695
	Mutual instruction,	6	6	312
	Free schools,	254	254	6601
Girls,	First class,	199	199	5970
	Second class,	116	160	3480
	Total,	590	664	20,058

There are yet 61 communes of the department which possess no schools. The proportion, however, is still considerable, being to the population as 1 : 16. In the receipts and expenditure of the towns of Marseille and Aix for 1821, we find in the former 85,000 francs,—in the latter, 59,000, allotted for public instruction.

The *Annuaire du Département de la Seine Inférieure* enables us to give correctly the condition of that highly-important department in respect to primary education. Its total population in 1823

was 655,281. The number of male children attending schools was, at the same time, 27,742,—that of females, 16,300; in all, of the two sexes, 44,042; being to the total population very nearly as 1 : 13. The scholars, of course, in the colleges and higher schools as well as in *pensions*, are not included.

From all that has been said, it will be evident that no country of Europe presents such an inequality in the diffusion of elementary knowledge as France. In some of its departments it presents a proportion not inferior to any country; in others it is inferior to Portugal, which, after Russia, is the least instructed country of Europe. It is to be hoped that this stigma will not remain long attached to France,—a stigma which she is too enlightened not to perceive, though hitherto she has failed in her efforts to remove it.

When so much yet remains to be done in the most simple and elementary branches of education, we can hardly look for many of those schools which profess to teach the rudiments of science and art to the working classes. Whilst every village has or is about to establish them in England, analogous institutions can be expected to exist only in the large towns of France. But the progress has not been so slow as may be imagined; and again M. Dupin presents himself as the eloquent pleader of such establishments, as he is of every thing likely to improve the condition of his countrymen. Amongst the towns which have for some years past possessed schools of geometry and mechanics applied to the arts are,

Lyons, Marseille, Bordeaux, Nantes, Rouen, Strasburg, Metz, Orleans, Dijon, Montauban, Rennes, Clermont, Colmar, Nevers, Poitiers et Limoges, Brest, Toulon, Rochefort, L'Orient et Cherburg, Le Havre, Honfleur, Dunkerque, Calais, Boulogne, Saint Brieux, La Rochelle et Cette, Saint Quentin, Saint Etienne, Sédan Mézières et Laval. And M. Dupin adds, " This winter, (1826,) thanks to the benevolence and liberality of a number of municipal councils, mayors, prefects, and sous-prefects, 98 towns are about to become rivals in imparting this new instruction to their industrious citizens." Many private individuals have founded schools of this description in their native places, and we shall finish this short sketch by stating what government has done for them. His excellency the Minister of the Interior, in a letter addressed to M. Dupin, dated 30th November, 1826, informs him of his decision, that 500,000 francs should be allotted for the construction of models to be distributed gratuitously to those towns which have been the most forward in establishing these schools. The Minister of Marine supports this instruction in 45 maritime towns, and the Dauphin has warmly expressed his satisfaction at the good they are doing to the industrious community.

Before finally closing this work, there yet remains one duty to perform,—it is to acknowledge the frankness and liberality with which information has been given to the author by persons of every description

connected with the institutions described in the foregoing pages. Every application was attended to. M. le Comte de Chabrol, prefect of the Seine, not only furnished him with his invaluable statistical tables of the department, but with great politeness added to these several other works, without the aid of which the present work must have been incomplete. In the public offices he met with every civility, and received every facility; and he should deem himself ungrateful, did he allow this opportunity to pass without making the acknowledgment so deservedly called for.

THE END.

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*** See also Quarterly Review, Scotsman, &c. &c.

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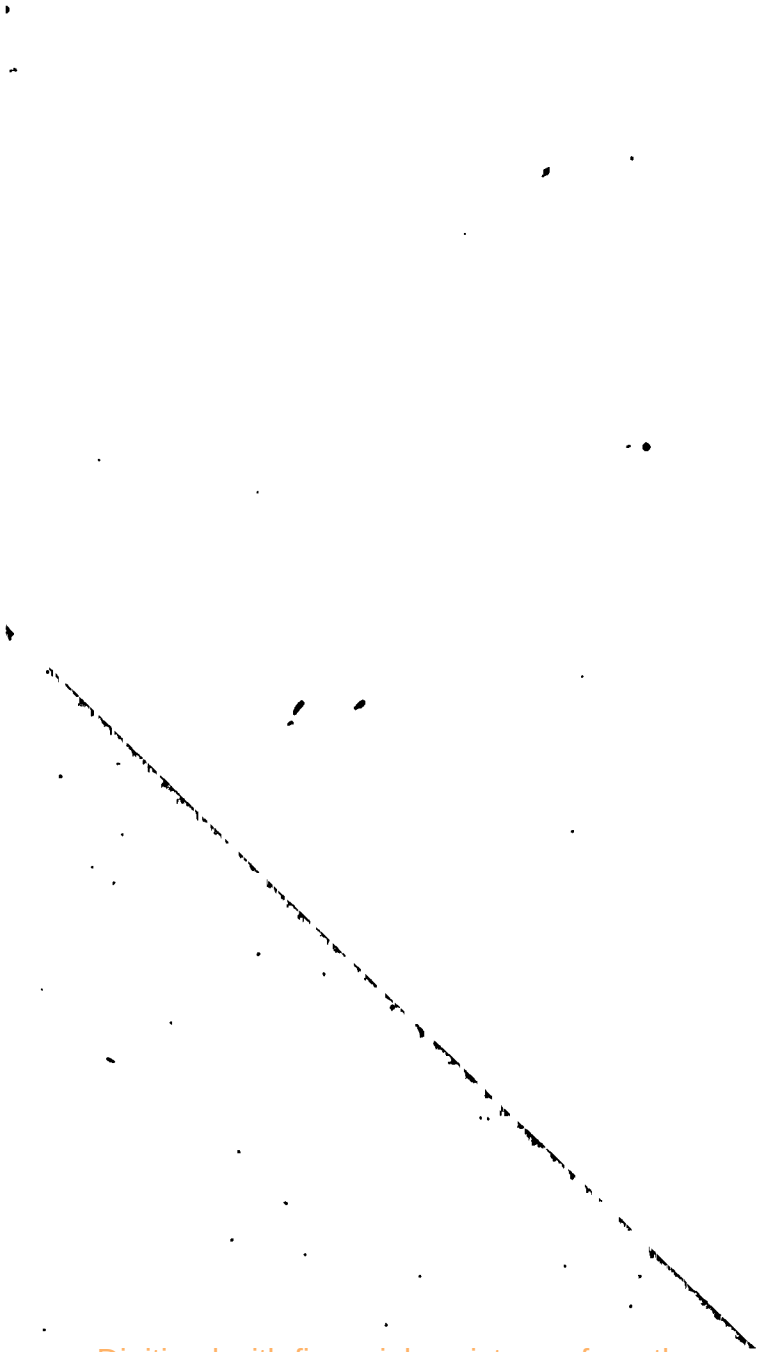

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